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EDUCATIONAL METHOD

A Journal of Progressive Public Schools

Volume X MARCH, 1931 Number 6

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NEW HAVEN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

EDUCATIONAL METHOD

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EDUCATIONAL METHOD

VOLUME X MARCH, 1931 NUMBER 6

EDITORIALLY SPEAKING

HONOR TO WHOM HONOR IS DUE

At the Columbus meeting the delegation from New York State by unanimous vote appointed a committee to wait upon John Dewey and request the privilege of nominating him for the presidency of the National Education Association. The committee has recently announced that Dr. Dewey has given his consent to this proposal.

The significance of the announcement is suggested by the following letters received by the chairman of the committee:

"No happier news could ever reach me than that Dr. Dewey would consent to be president of the N. E. A." (Willis A. Sutton, President of the N. E. A., 1930-31.)

"I am delighted to know that Dr. Dewey is willing to accept the presidency of the N. E. A. in 1932, if it is offered to him. . . . I believe it is time for the N. E. A. to honor itself by electing to the presidency the man who has the greatest national and international fame of any American educator." (Harry W. Langworthy, N. E. A. Director for New York State.)

"The National Education Association would confer upon itself the greatest possible honor and give to itself the very greatest credit by electing John Dewey to the presidency of the Association. I believe that the New York delegates, in presenting his name, would serve but as the spokesmen for the membership everywhere." (Payson Smith, Commissioner of Education, Massachusetts.)

As Commissioner Smith suggests, it is in behalf of the teachers of the nation that the New York delegation should speak in presenting Dr. Dewey's name to the Representative Assembly, and it is to be hoped that an unanimous indorsement of the proposal will make this possible.

In view of the custom of electing to the presidency men and women in alternate years, the action of the New York delegation referred specifically to the nomination in 1932. It will be peculiarly appropriate if Dr. Dewey can preside at the meeting of the Association in 1933, for it seems highly probable that this meeting will be held in Chicago and it is with the name of Chicago and its University that Dr. Dewey's first work as an educational reformer is identified.

It may not be amiss to say that the writer of this article is among the few members of his profession who are on record as disagreeing with some of Dr. Dewey's fundamental educational doctrines. This fact does not prevent him and will not prevent others who represent divergent schools of educational and social theory from joining in a movement to place this distinguished leader and most lovable man in

the highest office within the gift of the teaching profession.

WILLIAM C. BAGLEY

CHECK AND DOUBLE CHECK

If Barnum were living now he would double his estimate. At least *two* suckers are born every minute. Nor is the increase due entirely to the increment of population with which we have been blessed. War hysteria and war propaganda no doubt played their part. Overproduction with accompanying high-powered advertising must be counted in—"because you have only one head you should not conclude that you need only one hat"; "obey that impulse"; and so on without end. Yellow journalism—and what journal is without its saffron tints these days—has had its influence. A few moments' comparison of the headlines with the kernel of fact embedded somewhere in the bushel of "perhaps's" and "it is said's" which pad out the columns in any metropolitan newspaper will substantiate this charge. "Prosperity," with resulting over-complacency, has contributed. The widespread ability to "read" without an accompanying ability to think, to comprehend, and to discriminate has made mass appeal to large numbers possible. Result, an exhibition of gullibility on the grand scale.

The schools too must share the blame. They have "sold" knowledge rather than taught children and youth to sift and weigh. Instead of gathering evidence and drawing conclusions in history, the pupils have tried to learn the opinions of Professor *X*, as expressed in a condensed school text, blissfully ignorant of the fact that the opinions of Professor *Y*, published in a competing book, are divergent if not actually contradictory on many points. In geography they have been taught where people live and what they do rather than *why* they so live and act and what their living and acting mean to us. In arithmetic pupils are often taught to check their computations, but are they taught to judge the accuracy and application of quantitative statements in their school books and in their general reading? This year so many million bushels of wheat have been raised in Russia. What does that mean? Nothing at all unless the reader compares this with production in previous years and perceives the ratio involved—percentage or proportion of gain or loss.

A large group of teachers were asked recently whether they challenged the pupils in their classes in reading with the question, "Is this true?" "No!" they replied, "to do so would kill the interest of the children"—so low has the doctrine of interest fallen. Some of them were of course thinking of fairy tales, forgetting that children's reading should by no means be made up solely of fairy tales and in any case that many fairy tales are as untrue in their way as stories of actual happenings often are in theirs.

The students of mental hygiene tell us that the first thing a child should learn in order to have a healthy mind is not to act upon his first impulse but to weigh the consequences, exercise foresight. How this principle is to be harmonized with the garbled doctrine of "freedom" now practiced in many schools we leave to others to decide. The contemporary surrender of the standards of moral conduct, upon which comment has already been made in these columns, while undoubtedly to be traced to a multiplicity of causes, is probably due in a measure to a groundless fear in both home and school that some course of action will be "imposed" upon childhood or youth. As Dewey says, "this fear has become a veritable phobia."

The alternative to license is not neces-

sarily tyranny. Children may be led to apply their intelligence to the problems of human life and conduct as these problems arise in genuine experience. They may be taught the meaning and inexorability of law and how law and freedom must go hand in hand if human life is to be rational and worthy. Professor Coe's admirable *Law and Freedom in the School* shows how this may be done. At the least we may profit by the jocular philosophy of those two idols of the radio, Amos and Andy, and set up a working program designed to lead the pupils in the common school to "check and double check."

J. F. H.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION AND THE SCIENTIFIC ATTITUDE

FREDERICK S. CAMP

Supervisor of Urban Education, Connecticut State Board of Education, Hartford

"If we could first know where we are and whither we are tending, we could better judge what to do and how to do it." —Abraham Lincoln in "House Divided" speech.

This thought is now axiomatic in the thought of students of society and leading educators. With some it has resulted in a kind of conscientious panic; with others, in a placid attitude of watchful waiting; with most of us engaged in educational administration, in a shameful ostrich policy, or in *laissez faire*, or in an "after us the deluge" attitude.

We know our ways of living have changed and are changing. Our thinking, especially in relation to morals, is freer if not anarchic. Peoples' conceptions of law, liberty, and social control are mixed, various, and chaotic.

Libertarian views of domestic responsibilities, as judged by Victorian standards, are advanced openly without shock. We have traveled leagues away from the ancient concepts of "the least government, the best government" and of local control of primary police powers. "State rights" now has to be urged as new, not invoked as assured principle. The individual's sense of responsibility to the group (as represented by government) has weakened, or at least shifted. As Dewey has recently pointed out, the old individualism has passed on to a "corporate individualism" in which the human unit is lost in Rotary clubs, chain stores, bank mergers, supertrusts, drag-net installment buying, advertising psychology, mass production organizations, and efficiency schemes that lack human effectiveness.

In a word, *invention* as a product of science now presents itself to us as Frankenstein or servant, while true science, with detachment and cold purity, stands aside waiting to lead to a new culture.

This presents one major problem of public education: the development of science as servant, in technic and spirit. Science as servant forces these considerations:

1. The served—the kind of society that science may aid through its service and contribution.

2. The agencies and institutions in which, without distortion of meaning, one may assert to be the appropriate fields of science.

3. The limitations of science in the growth of a pleasant world of appreciations and emotions.

4. The distinction that should ever be

made between the mechanisms and inflexibilities that have sometimes become identified with scientific method and the real scientific spirit of adventure, individual pioneering, examination, analysis, experimentation, check, and proof—freedom under law, hard work under challenge, and cold truth ever in quest despite conventional stereotypes.

1. The kind of society to be served by science in this machinofacture age manifestly must be one of "liberated intelligence." Everett Dean Martin at the May, 1930, meeting of the Hartford County Connecticut Teachers Association was only one of many lay thinkers who are shaming and challenging us to produce independence (*i.e.*, liberty) of thinking. James Harvey Robinson, Charles A. Beard, Walter Lippman, Dr. Fosdick with his continual plea for "personality," and scores of others are at least by indirection stinging us to new processes and methods that will liberate intelligence.

(a) The more evident means may be seen in secondary education; but elementary education also has its fundamental and primary obligations. Its first obligation is to set up a condition under which children may have wide opportunities for choice among desirable, beneficial, moral, pleasant, harmful, evil, neutral, conventional and unusual behavior reactions. This suggests, though it does not by any means imply, that we should have "free schools."

An incidental policy of school direction should, at the present time, be to point out the qualifications and cautions of such writers as Dewey and his followers with particular reference to the disservice some of their nominal adherents do them through their half-thinking and misapplication of their philosophy. The "child-centered school" must be saved from anarchic license.

(b) A second obligation in the elementary field—a corollary of the first—is to free the school from indoctrination in all matters susceptible to controversy. The mores afford quite enough to which the child must conform in order to live happily and coöperatively without adventitiously introducing stereotypes of thinking. The child should be trained to think himself out of his doubts. This training requires a high order of intelligence and a too rare breadth of view on the part of the teacher.

(c) Society is complex and ever becoming more so. The facts of living, the things and agencies found in modern life, must at some time be apprized so that a third obligation in the elementary field is to multiply the experiences of children by multiplying their activities and the objects of their activities. This is no new thought; the "progressive schools" are exemplifying it in practice. Nevertheless, despite the index to the budget dollar, it should be the courageous policy of any administrator who does not desire "liberation" without "intelligence." Experiences provide the noun of the phrase, "liberative intelligence."

(d) A further obligation in the elementary school is to provide an atmosphere of tolerance, mutual appreciation, and good will. Our populations are as mixed as life itself. Different racial strains imbued with different ideals and customs associate in one common institution, the school. Outside school it is the same. Caste feeling still is found in greater or less degree. Economic and therefore educational opportunities vary. The industrialism of our time has aggravated some of these differences and has been the occasion, if not the cause, of vital differences in points of view. The school's obligation, in the elementary field, is to develop this spirit of comity, that emotional tol-

erance of the other fellow's custom and thinking, upon which rational tolerance may be premised in the secondary school level.

(e) The kind of vocational society to be served by science can not well be previsioned. The relation of education to industrial efficiency is a problem of serious concern. The National Industrial Conference Board report (1930) contains an indication of the wide and various problems involved. Until we know "whither we are tending" we can not tell what to do, especially in the elementary field.

Educational leaders and directors, however, have the serious duty of keeping this problem in the agenda of their educational engineering problems.

2. Agencies and institutions that are appropriate fields of science.

If by science we mean that spirit of science somewhat suggestive in paragraph 4 above, we may say that in a sense all fields are science's. Just as the products of science—the machines, things, life and conversation about us—are the objects of "intelligence," so the spirit of science gives us the adjective "liberative."

In the elementary field, our methods should offer the child many of these perplexities that challenge problem solving. The teacher should *lead*, not *do*. The pupil does not have his intelligence "liberated" if things are done for him. Herein is illustrated the "scientific" value of many of the recent types of silent reading—liberation of the child's intelligence, as well as the intelligence (new information) itself, comes through the child's own self-directed processes. He does the work.

If number work could be so contrived as always to eventuate in some penalty (such as that of discomfort or loss of property) we would have science more truly the servant of character building. Science is inexorable in its penalties for disobedience to law, and "two plus two is four" has the force and significance of law. The exactitude required in arithmetic and in the manual arts is of the spirit of science. We should aim for the development of an arithmetical conscience—an abhorrence of the "almosts" as being totally wrong. The spirit of science decrees that a thing *is* or *is not*. So does the spirit of arithmetic.

Sciences, including nature study in the elementary field, are peculiarly appropriate fields for the inculcation of the scientific attitude and spirit. Yet they may easily be taught most unscientifically and without any regard to a helpful philosophy of science. It is not in the lower school the Linnean nomenclature, the organization, the meticulous classification, etc., so usually associated with science that is important, but rather as above suggested the hunger for truth, the habit of observation, of taking nothing for granted, of experimentation, etc., that count.

The so-called "social sciences" present quite different considerations. They are not sciences—yet. In the elementary and secondary levels however, they seem to the writer to offer greater opportunity for the application and development of the scientific spirit than do even the sciences themselves; and in human behavior the scientific spirit is of transcendent importance.

When we learn through the social sciences what the western farmer's problems are; when we examine into the stresses and currents of 1867 to understand Andrew Johnson; when we learn why Ann Hutchinson and Roger Williams were unpopular and persecuted, we have gone far toward liberation. One cannot appraise these human conflicts without dispassion and detachment. One must veritably be scientific in attitude and spirit to keep one's balance.

Other applications of science in the elementary level might be made, but these

will serve to illustrate the present agencies and curricula that are not inappropriate fields for science. Our schools are not sufficiently meeting that obligation to utilize such fields for the *liberation* of intelligence —for the production of more independence of thinking.

3. Public education has its continued obligation toward the growth of the *whole* man—physical, emotional, and æsthetic, as well as rational. Art purposes as conceived in current progressive thought can not solely be realized through the agencies of the art teachers and courses of study. The teachers themselves must conceive of art as one of those cements or binders—like language, civics, and the social habits —that bind other activities into a harmonious and beautiful whole. The consumership idea needs development. Love of the beautiful and abhorrence of the ugly are matters that can not well be left to the chance visits of the "itinerant art teachers." Elementary education has an obligation to spread this cement of æsthetic values. Coming generations must ban junk-heaps, automobile graveyards, littered parks, and garish signboards.

A similar cement is music appreciation. The school's obligation to prepare children to leave a world better than they find it implies, therefore, more than the development of the scientific spirit.

4. Finally, the elementary schools must continually face the dilemma of rigid organizations and methods, made more or less necessary by the required mass instruction, and the scientific way of taking the human elements (pupils) as they are and making the adjustments according to the pupils' needs. In other words, the great problems of *articulation* remain to be solved.

Mechanical and inflexible organizations, methods and practices are not of the spirit of science. The elementary schools are under continual obligation to resist these inflexibilities that hinder the normal growth of the children.

These then are the larger problems that engage the attention of urban educational administration. Implicit in them are other problems. They will persist from year to year. No one of them can be set up as "a year's problem" to be dismissed and supplanted by some other "year's problem" in the future.

SUMMARY

1. Opportunity for pupils to make moral and intellectual choices independently.
2. Pupil initiative sensibly checked and guided; the school to have an earned freedom without anarchy.
3. No indoctrination in matters susceptible of controversy.
4. The multiplication of pupils' experiences.
5. More independent thinking according to appropriate age-grade levels.
6. Tolerance, mutual respect, and good will among pupils.
7. Continued study by administrators of social and economic trends.
8. A more scientific spirit in administration, supervision, and teaching, including more serious consideration of the problems of *articulation*.
9. Greater appreciation of beauty.
10. "Liberated intelligence."

CAUSES OF FAILURE AND SUCCESS IN SCHOOL[1]

JOSEPH MILLER

Director of Guidance, City Schools, Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania

The original purpose of this investigation was to determine the number of mentally defective children in the city schools of Wilkes-Barre. For that purpose, teachers from the first to the fifth grades were asked to report the lowest ten per cent of the children in their classes. In order to avert suspicion that the research was being conducted only for backward children, the teachers were asked to give also names of two or three of the academic highest children.

Soon it was discovered, however, that there was a great discrepancy between the results of the group mental tests and the teachers' opinions; that the "intelligence" of the so-called bright children was overestimated in a large number of cases; and, on the other hand, that the "intelligence" of those who were reported as "dull," "slow," "mentally backward," "defective," "stupid," etc., was underestimated.

It was shortly apparent that there are many factors which influence the teacher's opinion of a child's ability, such as personal appearance, cleanliness, quality of speech, pleasantness, shyness, and conscientiousness. It was also apparent that the problem of children of average mentality who are failing in school subjects was of the same importance as that of feeble-minded children.

It, therefore, became necessary to interview and study not only those who scored lowest in the group intelligence tests, as was originally intended, but all of the children who were reported and took the group tests.

The purpose of the investigation thus became twofold: (1) to determine the number of mentally defective children; (2) to determine the causes of success and failure in the schoolroom.

I. PROCEDURE

1. Group test

   All children were given a group test: Pintner-Cunningham Primary Tests, for children of first and second grades, and National Intelligence Tests, for children of third, fourth, and fifth grades.

2. Individual tests

   All children who were given the group test were also given individual language as well as non-language tests (Simon-Binet and Healy Picture Completion Tests, I and II).

3. Rating

   The children were also brought under observation and rated according to a set scale on their appearance (face, condition of hair, and cleanliness) and on their speech. At the same time they were interviewed to find out the size of the family, nationality of the parents, and the language spoken at home. Any peculiarities of behavior or appearance apparent at that time were noted also. This rating was done by three different persons and later compared.

4. Teacher's estimate

   Each teacher was asked to give her estimate of the pupil in the following things: indifference, distraction, hard

[1] This research was conducted by the staff of The Guidance Department of Wilkes-Barre city schools.

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work, shyness, pleasantness, slowness, and regularity of attendance.

5. Permanent record and medical cards
   A study of the permanent record card of each pupil and record was made of the number of years spent in each grade, failures in school subjects, changes of residence, occupation of father, absences, and low marks in conduct throughout the school career. Any physical defects on the medical cards were noted.
6. Observation of social behavior
   The names of those who rated lowest in all tests and observations were given to the principals of the schools. These children were watched closely by the principal and the teacher until they were able to give a report on such things as whether the child associated with other children; whether his appearance and actions were normal, and whether the group accepted him as normal.
7. Average group
   As a control group, 200 children were tested and observed, who were considered by the teachers as "average." Of the total number of children tested:

   1,021 were considered dull
   337 were considered bright
   200 were considered average

   1,558 (total)

II. RESULTS

1. Mental defectives
   Out of 1,021 children reported as dull, 45 children were found mentally defective according to all tests and observations of teachers and principals. Nineteen of these are already in special classes, 23 are at present in regular grades.
   From home investigations and the local Social Service Exchange, the following data on these children were gathered:

   11 had previously been examined at Mental Health Clinic
   2 are epileptics
   2 were premature births
   11 were retarded in walking
   14 were retarded in talking
   28 cases, parents realized their children's condition
   21 families were assisted by social organizations (from 1 to 6 organizations)

   Of those 26 mental defectives who have been in the regular grades and were observed by teachers and principals:

   65% did not play with other children on the playground
   76% were not considered normal in conduct on the playground and about the school
   70% were not accepted by the group as normal
   100% were not normal in appearance and actions

   There were 17 who were found to be feeble-minded in the tests but who the principals and teachers felt were better off for the present in the regular classes. Either they appeared socially normal or had acquired the technique of reading. It is worthy of note, however, that none of these children will be promoted this year and that four of them had previously been sent to the mental clinic for examination. These children will be followed up closely during the next year.

2. Causes of failure and success in school
   a. Language factor
      Interesting results followed from a comparison of the language and non-language tests for the three groups—the "dull," the "average," and the "bright":

(1) Of the 337 children given as bright, about 45% were really above average according to standards of the language tests

(2) Of the 1,021 children given as dull, 75% were really below average

(3) Of the 200 children given as average, 53% were really average in mentality

On the basis of the non-language tests there was practically no difference in the range of scores for the "bright" group, "average" group, and "dull" group. Where language ability is not the factor, the "bright" child and the "dull" child have practically the same chance of success.

b. Quality of speech

From other observations the importance of the language factor was evident. It seems that it is easy to overestimate the mentality of a child who is expert in the use of language.

(1) 25% of the children reported as bright were merely average in mentality (language tests) but quick in speech

(2) 35% of the children reported as dull were average in mentality but were slow in speech

(3) 10% of the children reported as dull had speech defects

c. Language spoken at home

	Bright	*Dull*
English speaking	68%	33%
Foreign speaking	9%	32%
Foreign and English..	23%	35%

3. Reading

Special attention was given to failures in reading, as reading is the basis of most school subjects. It was found from the permanent record cards that 75% of those children who were found mentally normal on basis of the non-language tests (although reported dull) had failed in reading at some time during the first five years. More than half of these failures occurred in the first grade.

Exactly the same per cent (75%) of mentally normal children (reported dull) had failed in arithmetic at some time during the first five years. While the failures in reading decreased at more or less regular intervals in the second, third, fourth and fifth grades, the failures in arithmetic showed a drop from 50% to 7% in the second grade and an increase to 19% in the third grade. After that they decreased gradually in the fourth and fifth grades, as did the reading failures.

4. Conduct

For the 337 children who were reported as bright, there were just 10 poor conduct marks on the permanent record cards during the first five years of school. For the 1,021 children who were reported as dull, there were 511 poor conduct marks. About two-thirds of these were for boys.

5. Attendance

In general it seems that "bright" children are more regular in attendance than the "dull" ones and this helps them to succeed.

	Bright	*Dull*
Absent less than 10 days	65%	43%
Absent 10-30 days.....	26%	46%

6. Grades repeated

31% of the "dull" children spent two years in the first grade; 6% three years. After the first grade there was a tend-

ency for the number of children repeating grades to decrease so that only 4% spent two years in the fifth grade.

7. Physical defects

There were a greater number of physical defects among the "dull" children than among the "bright," it was observed from the medical cards. Still these physical defects do not seem to be of such importance for success in class.

The greatest difference between defects of "bright" and "dull" children was with respect to tonsils, adenoids and teeth.

	Bright	*Dull*
Tonsils and adenoids..	14%	22%
Bad teeth	7%	14%
Poor vision	6%	10%
Poor hearing	2%	3%

There was practically no difference between the underweight and overweight of the "bright" and "dull."

8. Personality

Most of the children who were reported as bright but were just average in mentality in all language intelligence tests were, as it seemed, overestimated on account of their pleasantness and hard work. Many children who were regarded as dull but were found average in mentality were underestimated on account of shyness.

9. Personal appearance

65% of the "bright" were rated as perfect in cleanliness, while only 35% of the "dull" were rated as perfect in cleanliness.

26% of the "bright" were rated as very dirty, while 50% of the "dull" were rated as very dirty.

Many of the "bright" children (about 20%) were very attractive and very clean in appearance and average in intelligence.

10. Home conditions

It seems that the possibility of success in the school decreases with the increasing number of children in the family.

	Bright	*Dull*
From homes of 1 to 3 children came	57%	26%
From homes of 7 to 15 children came.....	12%	25%

The only child, the youngest child, and the oldest child seem to have the best chance of success in school. This would correspond to the general observation that the middle child of a family is often neglected. Sixty-five per cent of the "dull" children were found to be middle children.

It is clear that such conditions as broken homes, father not working, mother employed, moving, etc., would be a detriment to the child. But on examining the statistics gathered from permanent record cards it appears that these factors are not of such great importance as other factors mentioned above.

	Bright	*Dull*
From broken homes came	8%	14%
From homes where the mother was employed.	3%	8%
From families who moved once	20%	24%
From families who moved twice or more in the first five years....	4%	11%

11. Group instruction

In order to determine what was the difference between the reaction of a child in a group and alone, the same

group tests which were given to all children in groups of about thirty were given whole or in part to these children individually after an interval of two or three months. In these intelligence tests familiarity with the test could not be of great importance, because they measure only knowledge, and results from them can not be affected to any great degree by repetition. In general the "dull" children showed greater improvement when tested individually than the "bright."

	Bright	*Dull*
Did not improve at all on individual test....	34%	10%
Improved 25% over group performance ..	32%	25%
Improved 50% over group performance ..	14%	20%
Improved 75% over group performance ...	15%	25%
Improved 100% over group performance ...	5%	20%

This clearly indicated that the successful child is well adjusted to the group and gives the maximum of his performance while in a group. It is possible that the "bright" child is often one who is stimulated by being with other children. On the other hand, the failing child is possibly handicapped by being in a group. Since in most cases instruction is given in classes and the child is judged by his performance in group tests, it can easily be seen how the intelligence and knowledge of the child can be misjudged.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS[2]

1. Care in using the terms "mentally backward," "mentally defective," and others is recommended. Such terms are rather frequently found on permanent record cards and repeated without real basis year after year, placed there originally simply because the child failed in certain subjects in the first grade.
2. With regard to the definitely mentally backward children, these children would undoubtedly profit by a special class. And naturally the normal children could progress more rapidly without them.
3. From this investigation it is evident that the problem of normal children who are failing is just as important as that of those who are definitely defective.

   What these children need is really more individual attention. The regular teacher, even though in some cases she could give more than she does, is not able to reach every child in her class who needs it. Besides, in most cases, she is not trained in the problems of children who differ from the average.

   It is therefore recommended that as many as possible coaching teachers be secured. The duties of these teachers would be to study children who are failing in subjects, especially reading and arithmetic, to diagnose their weaknesses and to coöperate with the teachers in remedying these.

   These teachers must be (a) thoroughly acquainted with the technique of teaching primary subjects; (b) instructed in diagnosing and remedial treatment in elementary subjects; and (c) familiar with the principles of mental hygiene.

   The children would, of course, be in regular classes, but would go to the teacher for coaching in certain subjects. Her work with these children

[2] These recommendations were given to the principals and teachers.

would be more in the way of analysis than drill. As soon as the regular teacher could handle the problem, the child would be released from special instruction.

4. There is a tendency to judge the child by his ability in the use of language. Since most instruction today involves language, a child who has no other way of showing his abilities than through the use of language is likely to be deprived of all possibilities of success in school.

   It seems from the facts that it is easy to overestimate the mentality of a child who is expert in the use of language. In a number of cases it was found that a child who was reported as bright was in reality just a good talker, and that a child who was considered dull was frequently just slow in answering.

5. Since such a large per cent of the reading failures occurred in the first grade, it would seem advisable to concentrate attention on those early failures.

   There can be naturally all possible reasons why a child with normal mentality does not learn how to read. Colleges show that they realize the importance of this problem by the fact that they have regular courses in remedial work along this line. Several clinics for diagnosis and remedy of disabilities in reading and arithmetic have been established. It very often takes considerable time to discover the causes of this "disability," but there is not a single experimental proof that a child with normal mentality can not learn how to read.

   It is recommended that every child who has failed in reading in the first semester be referred to the Guidance Department for study. The same applies to arithmetic.

6. Such things as conduct, personal appearance, and home conditions affect the judgment of a child's mentality. Conduct naturally has nothing to do with intelligence as such. A bright child can be just as troublesome as a dull one.

   Frequently a child's reputation for bad conduct, poor home environment, and untidy appearance is passed with him from one grade to the next, and for those reasons nothing is expected of him. Even less attention is given to him than to an average child, in spite of the fact that he should have more.

7. It is extremely detrimental to a child to make public his weaknesses. Therefore the labelling of a child in the classroom as bright or "dumb," either orally or by seating arrangement, is poor technique.

8. Close coöperation between teachers and nurses is recommended. It is suggested that the teachers report not only serious physical defects, as they do, to the medical department, but also such things as undernourishment, fatigue and the like. Likewise, when the Medical Department recommends treatment, teachers could help greatly in seeing that it is carried out. It was noticed in several cases that children did not wear glasses which had been provided for them.

   No doubt children with physical weaknesses, such as vision or hearing, are usually appropriately placed in the classroom. Care should be taken, however, that this always be done in spite of the child's academic standing.

9. It is evident that in the usual large class the teacher does not have much time for individual attention, and the largest part of instruction must be given in the group. But as it can be observed from the above study that the

"poorer" students improve much in their performance under individual instruction, it is recommended that as much individual attention as possible be given them.

In general it is recommended that the curriculum of the grade schools be made as flexible as possible, so that it can be better adapted to the needs of children other than the average. In many cases a failing child can be taken care of in this way. The school curriculum should be so flexible as to meet the individual needs of every child and develop all his abilities and interests to the highest possible degree.

A list of all children studied in this investigation, with a tentative diagnosis and recommendation for treatment, was given to all principals. At the beginning of next year copies of these will be given to the new teachers of these children, and where coöperation of the parents is required arrangements for conferences with them will be made.

THE NORMAL SCHOOL AND THE ACTIVITY PROGRAM

BLANCHE JENNINGS THOMPSON
City Normal School, Rochester, New York

It is all very well for the "activity" enthusiast to preach the greater freedom of the child-centered school and the stupendous results in the form of released creative power to be expected therefrom, but it will usually be found that the aforesaid enthusiast is a theoretical navigator with no active experience down amidships where the bewildered crew are trying to understand and carry out their astonishing orders.

Nearly always such movements as the "activity" program originate or are first adopted on a large scale in the great educational centers. They are carried on with a picked corps of eager, intelligent teachers under the watchful eyes of the specialists themselves and very frequently with a superior class of children. Results are naturally excellent—almost startling in their excellence—but it is usually more because of the type of teacher than of the method. Almost any kind of procedure would produce good results in such an environment.

Then the hordes of imitators descend upon these model schools, remain for a more or less brief period and return to their own demesnes with a garbled idea of the procedure, often with no idea whatever of the principles and philosophy underlying that procedure, and, throwing overboard all of the old, both good and bad, embark upon the new adventure with high enthusiasm and frequently little common sense. Many misguided navigators in the guise of principals or supervisors order their varyingly willing or reluctant crew to proceed dead ahead into the fog and wonder that it is difficult to keep off the rocks and make safe harber.

The experienced teacher with certain control techniques, at least, at her command finds it tough going, but the novice just out of training school finds herself with " a nervous breakdown" at the end of one, two, or three years of teaching. The pace is too fast for the load she has to carry. This brings us to the problem of the normal school which is trying to pre-

pare students to teach in activity schools. Eventually, when the children now in such schools reach the normal school, this problem will not be so acute. Students will approach their training already possessed of certain necessary techniques through having themselves been taught by them—that is, if the activity schools have not by that time given place to something else.

The normal schools have had troubles enough heretofore and have come in for plenty of criticism, but now their case is pitiful. The city training school, in particular, faces a difficult problem in the type of student attracted to it. James S. Tippett says, and truthfully, that "the teacher must, first of all, have lived richly in books, in travel and in life enjoyment in order to give richly to her pupils . . . her own cultural background must be full in content and significant in its meanings." All very well—but where are we to get these teachers? Without them, the activity program is worse than useless.

Take the case of the training school which draws largely from a foreign population. Of any given fifty girls, perhaps ten can be adequately trained to do the new type of teaching. These are the ones who can understand the principles of teaching in general or new methods in particular, and can base intelligent procedure upon this knowledge. The other forty need to have definite models to follow for everything and tend to fall back upon teaching patterns used upon them in the elementary school. There is very little transfer from one situation to another. They can not see like elements in different situations and they prefer detailed lesson plans which they can follow faithfully. In tool subjects, like spelling and arithmetic, they get along fairly well but in the appreciation type of lesson they are helpless.

This state of affairs is probably equally true in the state normal schools in the matter of general intelligence and ability to grasp teaching technique, but the city school struggles with the added problem of language handicaps. A student may come from the high school with a high scholarship record. She may have trained herself to speak fairly adequate English for ordinary life situations, although she may hear only Yiddish, Italian, or Polish when she is at home; but that is not sufficient for a teacher. She is not very likely to succeed with creative writing or extensive appreciative reading, although she may be able to produce a farm sand table with the best of them.

Another normal school problem in connection with the activity curriculum is the division of subject matter in the theory classes. The English methods teacher in particular has a hard lot. Having no subject matter of her own, she finds that she can not distinguish her course of study from the geography and history curricula. Since the breakdown of subject barriers, English, both written and oral, is naturally based upon the social sciences around which the activities center. She must be careful, therefore, that she make no mistake in subject matter which will bring down upon her head the wrath of her colleagues in the other departments. The problem of overlapping of instruction is thus seen to be an urgent one. It is inevitable that the same material, as things are, will be taken up from different points of view by different teachers. It is highly probable that the social sciences—geography and history at least—should be taught by the same teacher.

Then there is the lesson plan. The ideal way would be to have no plans at all which must be made intelligible to some one else, but since, for the present at least, they seem necessary evils, the question is, "What kind?" Some there are who cling

firmly to the outworn formula known as the "Five Formal Steps," namely: *aim, preparation, presentation, generalization,* and *application.* Others, while adhering to the plan, vary the terminology by substituting *outcomes* or *objectives* for aims; *approach* or *introduction* for preparation; *procedure* for presentation; and *summary, conclusion* or *check-up* for application. No matter what you call the steps, these plans have to do with the so-called recitation method and deal with too limited a field. With the adoption of activity units a new type of plan becomes necessary, broad enough to encompass the various aspects of the teaching unit.

The writer struggling with the problem evolved a "unit plan," which at first promised to work out well but which developed certain weaknesses, as will be shown. This plan was intended to be used, when necessary, by several persons working together, each one contributing her share after a general conference to choose the unit, determine probable outcomes, procedure, and distribution of responsibility. The general set-up of the plan was like that shown at the bottom of this page (a single block only is indicated; others would follow vertically as needed).

The idea was to name each activity relative to the center of interest; to evaluate it in terms of *probable outcomes* (the expression "probable" being the loophole for escape), differentiated into *attitudes and appreciations, skills and habits and knowledges*; and to try to plan the *procedure* in terms of *teacher participation* and *child participation.* In the activity column, the type of thing which would be going on at any given moment with the group would be simply stated as: preliminary discussion (to initiate the unit); planning period (to locate problems and arrange to solve them); story-telling; dramatization; free activity; letter-writing, etc. With such a unit as communication, transportation, discovery, or invention, each student would be responsible for one aspect. One, for example, would be responsible for the initiation of the project and the tool aspects, one for the industrial arts, and one

COMMUNICATION

Outcomes			Activity	Procedure	
Attitudes and Appreciation	Skills and Habits	Knowledges		Teacher Participation	Pupil Participation
Willingness to contribute to discussion and listen open-mindedly to others	Practice in good habits of oral language	Increased information about means of communication and its history	Preliminary Discussion	Initiates, leads selectively by questioning, draws out, suppresses, integrates, leads on, and concludes	Contributes previous knowledge, questions intelligently, listens courteously, volunteers for research

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for the appreciation aspect (stories, poems, music, pictures, magazine articles, newspaper clippings, bulletin boards, etc.).

Obviously, there are many difficulties in writing such a plan. Very soon they begin to grow cumbersome and unwieldy with too many divisions and too little space in which to write. They were difficult and tiresome for both theory and critic teacher to look over and correct; in fact corrections could hardly be made except through personal interview. The very hopelessness of suggesting adequately more worthy skills and habits, or more attainable attitudes to be secured, made the reader scan more carelessly and give it up as a hopeless job.

The point apparently most obscure to the student and most difficult for the reader to explain by means of written correction is the distinction between attitudes and skills or between habits and knowledges. A habit can hardly be established in one lesson or even in a series of lessons. It can only be initiated or strengthened. The fact that a period should be placed at the end of a sentence, as mere knowledge, is worthless. It is only when that knowledge is turned into a habit that it actually functions. Such distinctions are very difficult for the young teacher to make and while they must be made clear to her, they confuse the issue if an attempt is made to indicate them on a unit plan.

Mere technicalities in the terminology used sometimes cause lack of clearness. If the word *outcomes* or *objectives* is used, for example, it seems clear that a noun should follow, i.e., increased *speed* of silent reading; a *habit* of using capitals to begin proper nouns, etc. Even so apparently minor a point has a bearing upon the students' ability to think and analyze.

It will also be noted that, through the first two divisions, the writer is thinking horizontally, as it were, while beginning with division three, *procedure*, he is thinking vertically or in terms of actually standing before the class with such questions in mind as: Who begins? What happens next? What do I do? What do they do? (All this, of course, in a direct teaching and learning situation, such as work-type reading or spelling.) It seems wise to have this part of the plan concern only the critic and the student teacher and should be dealt with largely in personal conference. Another evil appears frequently—not a new one but still unconquered. Students, being human and hurried and not too sure what it is all about, often attempt to borrow and copy such plans already made, not sensing that every situation is a new one, requiring fresh and thoughtful planning.

Another much simpler type of plan is indicated on the opposite page. This deals with a much narrower problem. Many students feel that they understand even the small unit better by considering it horizontally rather than vertically. This type may be used quite by itself or it may become a block of the larger plan, omitting the first caption, *Supposed Situation*.

Curiously enough, even after the tentative curriculum for this particular school was in print and centers of interest with subordinate units were definitely decided upon, making the unit plan no longer vitally necessary, many of the critic teachers preferred it because they felt that such planning made for better teaching.

Activity teaching is apparently one of the by-products of living in an industrial age. Noise seems to be a necessary adjunct. It may seem like an unimportant point but the constant movement and noise, reasonable and necessary as it may seem, has nevertheless a decided effect upon the nerves of both critic and student, resulting sometimes in friction which is not actual but apparent and brought about

SUPPOSED SITUATION

A firm has sent advertising booklets and the class is about to write a letter of thanks.

Outcomes			Activity	Procedure	
Attitudes and Appreciation	Habits and Skills	Knowledges		Teacher Participation	Child Participation
Gratitude for favors received	A habit of acknowledging favors promptly	How to write a "Thank you" letter	Letter writing	1. Suggests, if necessary 2. Questions for content 3. Presents model 4. Directs coöperative work 5. Assists in individual work 6. Sets up standards 7. Assists in choosing best	1. Children share coöperatively, appropriate content 2. Study model 3. Write individual letters 4. Assist in choosing best

by nerve strain. A critic teacher's life, like that of a goldfish at best, now more nearly parallels that of the traffic cop at Times Square. The critic who has a dull grade proceeding on an activity basis has an especially difficult time and if, in addition, she is unlucky enough to draw her practice teachers from the third or fourth quartile of their group, then indeed does she give up in despair. Activities with a small picked group are one thing and activities with thirty to thirty-five slow-moving pupils as well as slow-moving students are something else again.

There is another aspect of the subject which the writer has called, somewhere else, "the potential immorality of the activity program" and it is one which deserves the serious consideration of principals and supervisors. "Activities" is really only another name for "projects" and, just as with the so-called project method, there was and still is a great deal of misunderstanding of the meaning of the word, so an "activity" may mean something the children are doing or the result of that doing. Hence we are told that there will be "an exhibit of 'activities' in Room 193," activities in this case meaning something tangible to be exhibited.

In this sense of the word the teacher is subjected to severe competition. She wishes to produce results just as impressive as those of her neighbor, and she lies and

cheats (harsh words, but terribly true) to produce those results. Now the picked teacher, earnest, intelligent, and understanding, back there in the educational center would be quite properly shocked at such stupid misunderstanding of what is meant by "activity," but there you are. To one of her type there are hundreds of the others—well-meaning people indeed, who would be highly indignant if it were suggested that they could even dream of lying or cheating—but there are no other words for it when they do most of the work and then say proudly, "The children did it all themselves."

It may be illuminating to note some further comments with regard to the difficulty of securing suitable teacher material. Says William Lyon Phelps, "If only the money that is squandered on the building of battleships and firing off expensive powder into the air could be spent on teachers!" If, indeed! Demiashkevich remarks that there can scarcely be produced a sufficient number of teachers qualified to be efficient and responsible guides to children in a panoramic education; and James F. Hosic, paraphrasing Hughes Mearns, speaks facetiously but with awful truth when he says, "Only a few can create and only a few, chosen of God, can help them."

The young teacher going out from the normal school, uncertain enough at best, her mind full of tag-ends of psychology and theory, enters into competition with these others, she sees what they do, takes the line of least resistance, drops her hampering ideals, and joins the throng.

Her problem is discouraging. Discipline alone in a room with thirty-five children and with noisy movable chairs and tables is almost too much for her. She knows things to teach if they would only listen to her, but attention is difficult to get and harder to keep. With each child doing a different thing much of the day, it is like driving Ben Hur's chariot. She can't manage all of the reins.

The mass of curriculum subject matter is appalling. She must spend much time in the public library, just to give herself some background for the teaching unit, which may carry her all over the world. She must know or find out about lumbering, machinery, ocean liners, farm animals, transportation, communication, banking, government, Greek civilization—why lengthen the list? She must be a veritable compendium of useful information as well as a skillful craftsman in all the manual arts, a model of patience and a pillar of wisdom. Is it any wonder that the normal schools groan within themselves and say, "How are we going to do it?"

THE RECREATION ROOM FOR GRADES FOUR, FIVE, AND SIX IN THE COÖPERATIVE GROUP PLAN[1]

The purpose of the Recreation Room is to provide opportunity for self-expression and for the development of interests which will carry over into leisure time.

Specific Objectives

A. Physical Education
   1. To contribute continuously to the development of nerve and organic power.
   2. To develop continuously the fundamental skills used in daily life and in recreational activities, such as running, jumping, climbing, striking, throwing, dodging, etc.
   3. To have, through physical activity, increasing opportunity for experience in creative expression, as in developing games, revising rules for games, developing rhythmic plays, etc.
   4. To develop increasingly leadership, followership, and coöperation—qualities which encourage good citizenship.

B. Dramatics
   1. To develop an appreciation of dramatics as a means of expression.
   2. To correlate dramatics with the work in the other rooms.
   3. To develop dramatic expression from life experiences.
   4. To develop individual and group initiative and responsibility in the development and presentation of dramatic performances.

C. Music
   1. To develop an appreciation of music and pleasure in singing as a means of expression.
   2. To provide the technique for sight-singing and time interpretation, which will give ability to learn new songs.
   3. To correlate music with other phases of school work.

The Playground

The playground should be large enough to allow for group and team games, and for self-testing activities, including apparatus play. Authorities recommend from three to five acres for elementary schools. Fences to protect against street accidents and to keep apparatus within bounds are essential. Surfaces should be level, free from stones, and graded to prevent flooding during rainy seasons.

Play apparatus should be of the type which encourages a large amount of physical activity, growth in skill, coöperative effort, and play in leisure time. A suggestive list of play apparatus is included under *Equipment.*

In winter the playground should be flooded for skating and equipped with knock-down sled slides for coasting.

References for Play Areas and Equipment

Playground and Recreation Association, *Play Areas.* A. S. Barnes and Co.

Neilson and Van Hagen, *Physical Education for Elementary Schools.* California State Printing Office, Sacramento, California.

Supervision of the Playground During Recess Periods

Constructive leadership and supervision of the playground are essential to insure the extension of educational influences into

[1] The sixth and last of a series of committee reports on activities, materials and equipment for the several work rooms in a school organized on the Coöperative Group Plan. The committee which prepared this report was as follows: Ethel Rockwell, Supervisor of Physical Education, Kalamazoo, Michigan; Doris I. Shultise, fourth grade and music teacher, Wichita, Kansas; and E. H. Strickland, Elementary School Principal, Greensboro, North Carolina.

the play life of the children during recess periods. The children have opportunities to practice the activities they have learned during the physical education instruction periods. The recess period is a good test of the efficiency of the physical education teaching. Supervision during recess periods should allow for freedom in choice of activities, and should encourage pupil leadership, followership, and coöperation. During the physical education instruction periods the pupils should learn to organize and direct games, to referee games, to keep score, and to settle disputes. Unless they can do these things, there is little chance that the activity will carry over into leisure time. Pupil recess leaders may be appointed for periods of one or more weeks. It is desirable to pass the leadership opportunities on to as many children as possible. There are very few pupils who can not assume some leadership responsibility. There should be enough play leaders each recess period to insure play opportunities to all pupils. Pupil leadership does not mean that adult leadership is unnecessary. Pupil leaders need advice and help. Adult leadership is necessary to insure safety and fair play. The teacher has opportunities to discover pupils, traits which are never seen in the schoolroom. It is often possible and desirable to help pupils in individual play interests during recess periods. Children should never be sent to the playground unsupervised. If there is a physical education teacher whose duty it is to supervise out-of-door play periods, it is not essential that the other teachers go to the playground. However, it is desirable that all teachers enter into the play life of the pupils, both to take advantage of the opportunities offered for knowing the children and their needs and to get for themselves fresh air, exercise, and relaxation.

ACTIVITIES

A. Physical Education

Indoors

1. Self-testing activities
   a. Stunts, as, elephant walk, crab walk, rooster fight, wheelbarrow, hand stand, Eskimo roll, skin the snake, etc.
   b. Play skills in running, jumping, climbing, throwing, catching, kicking, striking, etc.
   c. Athletic events involving running, jumping, and throwing
   d. Play with such apparatus, as, mats, climbing ropes, jump standards, horizontal bars, balance beams, balls, pitching targets, etc.
2. Games
   a. Group games involving running, jumping, dodging, catching, throwing, as in Ball and Bases, Center Base, etc.
   b. Games of the relay type, as, All-up Relay, Shuttle Relay, etc.
   c. Games involving simple team work, as, Newcomb, Schlag, Progressive Dodge Ball, Side Kick, etc.
   d. Games suitable for social gatherings, as, Finding the Ring, Going to Jerusalem, Buzz, etc.
3. Sports
   a. Bowling, quoits, scouting, etc.
4. Rhythmic Play[a]
   a. Self-expression through original rhythmic interpretations
   b. Rhythmic skills, as, running, skipping, galloping, hopping, sliding, etc.
   c. Imitations and interpretations
      a. Animals—horses, camels, elephants, ducks, birds, etc.
      b. Fairies, giants, witches
   d. Singing games and folk dances, Csch-bogar, Children's Polka, etc.
   e. Clogs, as Captain Jinks, etc.

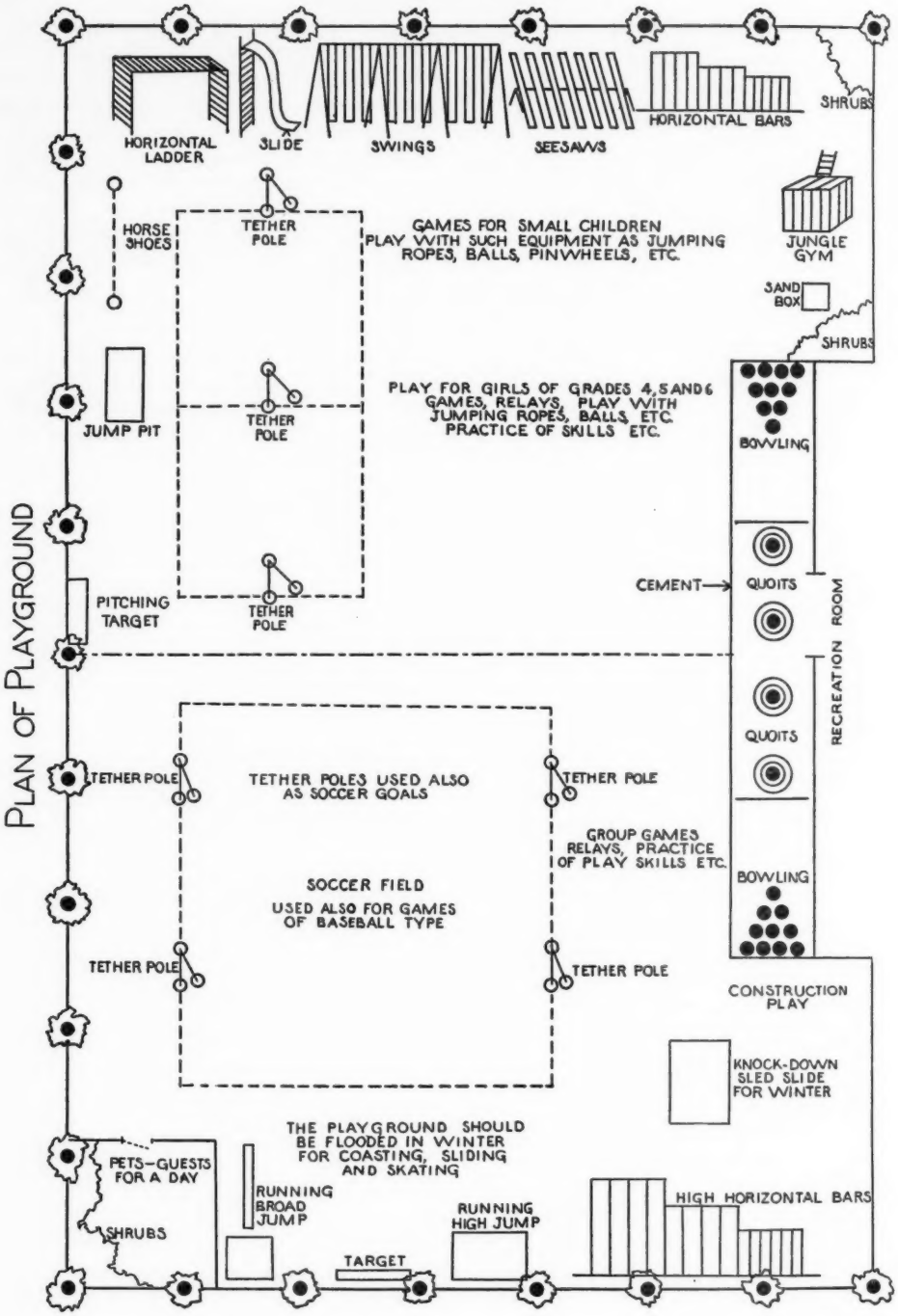
[a] Rhythmic plays and other physical activities should grow out of, and be related to, social studies or other general interests, *when the connection is logical* and *natural.*

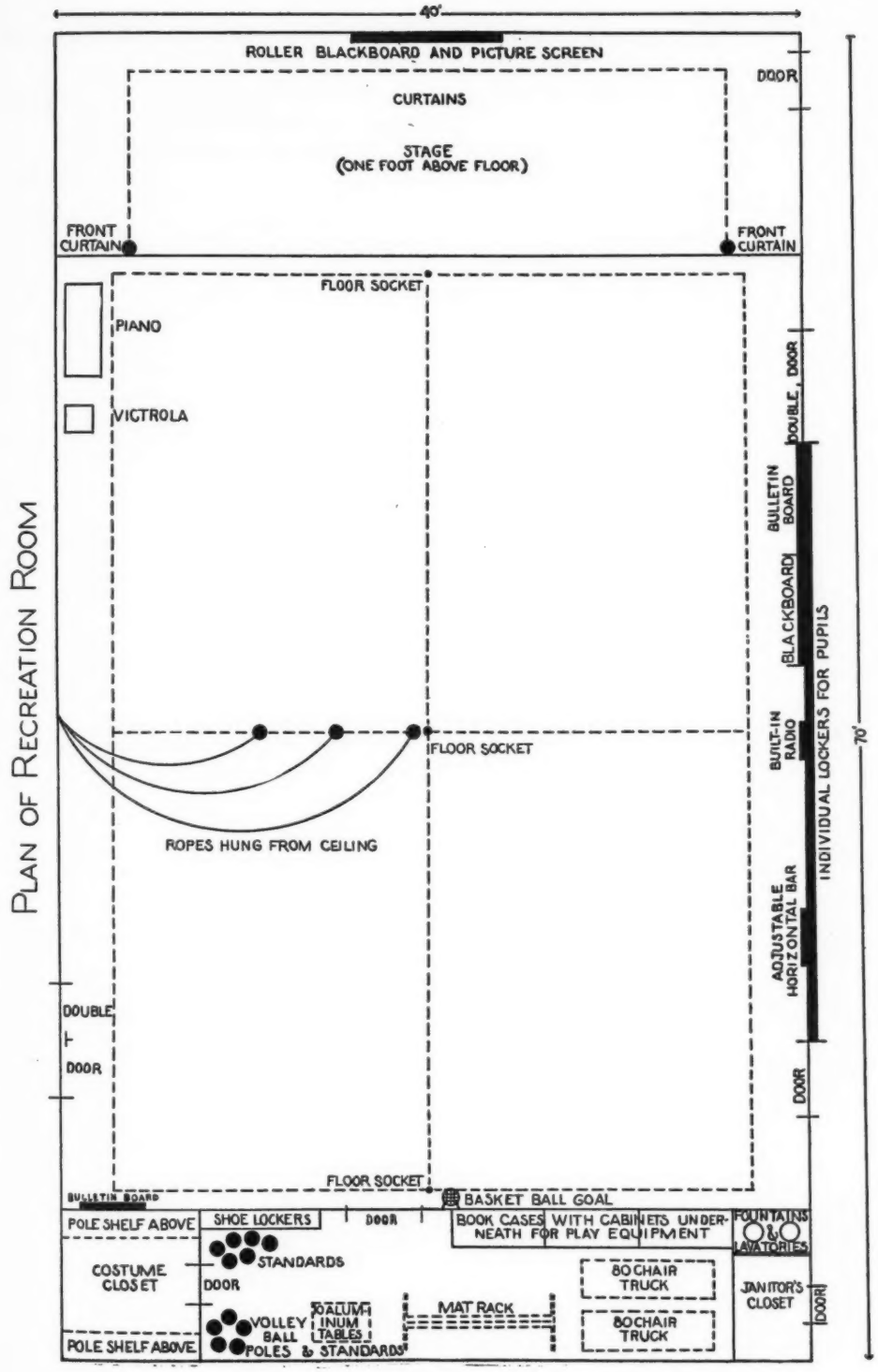
Out of Doors

1. Self-testing activities
   a. Play skills in running, jumping, catching, throwing, kicking, and striking
   b. Athletic events involving running, jumping, and throwing
   c. Play on apparatus, swings, teeters, horizontal bars, etc.
2. Games
   a. Group games, as, Three Deep; Pom, Pom, Pull Away; Prisoner's Base, Japanese Tag, Red Rover, etc.
   b. Team Games, as, Soccer, Newcomb, End Ball, Bombardment, Volley Ball, Patch Ball, etc.
   c. Relay Games, as, All-up Relay, Flag Relay, Shuttle Relay, etc.
3. Sports
   a. Coasting, skating, skiing, bowling, horseshoes, quoits, scouting, etc.
4. Rhythmic play—singing games
   (Descriptions of activities are found in books suggested for Recreation Room library)

B. Dramatics
1. Plays growing out of activities in connection with the other rooms—health, citizenship, customs of peoples, etc.
2. Plays in connection with special days and occasions: Thanksgiving, Christmas, Easter, Hallowe'en, Valentine's Day, Columbus Day, Birthdays of Famous Men and Women, Anniversary of Scouting, Community Chest, Thrift Week, Book Week, Educational Week, etc.
3. Pageants—community history, educational development, national historical events, pageants of the seasons, Christmas pageant, etc.
4. Festivals—May Day, Harvest Festival, etc.
5. Carnival—Winter Carnival, etc.

C. Music
1. Singing songs
   a. Rote songs sung for pleasure
   b. Patriotic—songs of our country, state, or school, which inspire and thrill, as
      (1) "America, the Beautiful"
      (2) "Star Spangled Banner"
      (3) "America"
      (4) State songs or songs of certain sections
      (5) School songs
   c. Religious—especially for Thanksgiving and Christmas
   d. Native folk songs—to be worked out in connection with social studies. Examples:
      (1) Negro
      (2) Indian
   e. Songs of other lands—correlate with geography, history, reading, and social studies. Introduce songs of the countries as studied in these other classes
   f. Seasonal songs
      (1) Fall—as, "October's Party," Progressive Series, IV
      (2) Winter—as, "The First Snowflake," Hollis Dann
      (3) Spring—as, "Pussy Willow," Music Education Series
   g. Songs for special occasions—coöperate with Dramatics Section in planning
2. Sight singing
   a. One-part songs involving recognition of notes and their relative tones, time or rhythm sense, accent and expression, minor keys, sharp and flat chromatics
   b. Two- and three-part songs—to develop chords and harmonies, using the tools acquired in one-part songs
3. Foundations for both rote and sight singing
   a. Games for drill, as
      (1) Contest with flash cards
      (2) Building phrases on staff, then singing
      (3) Recognition of signs in music, familiarity with their meaning and how to use them
      (4) Singing intervals from the ladder on the board
      (5) Matching patterns


PLAN OF PLAYGROUND
HORIZONTAL LADDER
SLIDE
SWINGS
SEESAWS
HORIZONTAL BARS
SHRUBS
HORSE SHOES
TETHER POLE
GAMES FOR SMALL CHILDREN
PLAY WITH SUCH EQUIPMENT AS JUMPING ROPES, BALLS, PINWHEELS, ETC.
JUNGLE GYM
SAND BOX
SHRUBS
JUMP PIT
TETHER POLE
PLAY FOR GIRLS OF GRADES 4, 5 AND 6
GAMES, RELAYS, PLAY WITH JUMPING ROPES, BALLS, ETC.
PRACTICE OF SKILLS ETC.
BOWLING
CEMENT
QUOITS
PITCHING TARGET
TETHER POLE
QUOITS
RECREATION ROOM
TETHER POLE
TETHER POLES USED ALSO AS SOCCER GOALS
TETHER POLE
GROUP GAMES
RELAYS, PRACTICE OF PLAY SKILLS ETC.
SOCCER FIELD
USED ALSO FOR GAMES OF BASEBALL TYPE
BOWLING
TETHER POLE
TETHER POLE
CONSTRUCTION PLAY
KNOCK-DOWN SLED SLIDE FOR WINTER
THE PLAYGROUND SHOULD BE FLOODED IN WINTER FOR COASTING, SLIDING AND SKATING
PETS—GUESTS FOR A DAY
RUNNING BROAD JUMP
RUNNING HIGH JUMP
HIGH HORIZONTAL BARS
SHRUBS
TARGET


PLAN OF RECREATION ROOM
40'
ROLLER BLACKBOARD AND PICTURE SCREEN
DOOR
CURTAINS
STAGE
(ONE FOOT ABOVE FLOOR)
FRONT CURTAIN
FRONT CURTAIN
FLOOR SOCKET
PIANO
VICTROLA
DOUBLE DOOR
BULLETIN BOARD
BLACKBOARD
BUILT-IN RADIO
INDIVIDUAL LOCKERS FOR PUPILS
70'
FLOOR SOCKET
ROPES HUNG FROM CEILING
ADJUSTABLE HORIZONTAL BAR
DOUBLE DOOR
DOOR
FLOOR SOCKET
BULLETIN BOARD
BASKET BALL GOAL
POLE SHELF ABOVE
SHOE LOCKERS
DOOR
BOOK CASES WITH CABINETS UNDERNEATH FOR PLAY EQUIPMENT
FOUNTAINS & LAVATORIES
COSTUME CLOSET
STANDARDS
DOOR
80 CHAIR TRUCK
JANITOR'S CLOSET
DOOR
VOLLEY BALL POLES & STANDARDS
10 ALUMINUM TABLES
MAT RACK
80 CHAIR TRUCK
POLE SHELF ABOVE

4. Appreciation
   a. Listening—records which children like to hear
      Listen for enjoyment and to develop courtesy in listening
      Pick out things heard in selection
   b. Expressing accent by: tapping in the air, swaying to and fro, rocking a doll, directing an orchestra, playing a musical instrument
   c. Familiarity with musical instruments by sound, name, and appearance (show pictures of instruments as played)
   d. Expressing rhythm through skipping, marching, dancing, etc. (correlate with physical education)
   e. Listening to stories and observing how music fits them
      Create stories to go with music

EQUIPMENT

A. General
   1. Individual lockers in halls
   2. Storage closets for equipment
   3. Bookcases and supply cupboards
   4. Two lavatories with drinking fountains and liquid soap attachments
   5. Paper towels and waste basket
   6. Bulletin board and blackboards
   7. Moving picture machine and curtain
   8. 160 chairs and two trucks
   9. Ten aluminum folding tables
   10. Piano
   11. Victrola and records
   12. Radio

B. Physical Education

Indoors

1. Mats, each 4′ x 7′	4 pairs
2. Movable mat hanger	1
3. Jump standards (used also out of doors)	3 pairs
4. Fish poles for jump standards (used also out of doors)	6
5. Volley poles and sockets to hold	3
6. Volley nets (used also out of doors)	2
7. Basket goal for practice in goal throwing	1
8. Climbing ropes with hoisting apparatus	3
9. Adjustable horizontal bar	1
10. Duck pins (used also out of doors)	2 sets
11. Rubber quoits (used also out of doors)	2 sets
12. Light baseball bats	12
13. Indoor baseballs 10″ (used also out of doors)	24
14. Soccer balls (used also out of doors)	12
15. Volley balls (used also out of doors)	6
16. Rubber sport balls 25″ (used also out of doors)	2
17. Shoe lockers for tennis shoes	160

Out of Doors

1. Swings	9 or 12
2. Horizontal bars, 3′, 4′, and 5′ high	12
3. Seesaws	8
4. Sand box, 18 feet square	1
5. Jungle gym	1
6. Slide	1
7. Horizontal ladder	1
8. Jump standards	3 pairs
9. Fish poles for jump standards	6
10. Jump pits	3
11. Tether poles	6 or 8
12. Duck pins	2 sets
13. Rubber quoits	2 sets
14. Horseshoes	2 sets
15. Jumping ropes (18′ long, ½″ rope)	12
16. Short jumping ropes (clothes line rope, each 7′ long)	24
17. Sleds	6
18. Knock down sled slide	1
19. 100′ tapes	3
20. Ball pumps	2
21. "Tek" for waterproofing balls	2 cans

C. Dramatics
   1. Stage and curtain

2. Costumes (to be made in Art Room)
3. Properties (devised by pupils)

D. Music

1. Large pictures of all orchestra instruments; if possible, the instruments themselves
2. Pitch pipe
3. Staff liner for blackboard
4. Builders and loose notes for each child (40 builders, 320 notes)

LIBRARY

A. Physical Education

1. LaSalle, Dorothy, *Play Activities for Elementary Schools.* A. S. Barnes and Co.
2. Bancroft, Jessie, *Games for the Playground, Home, School and Gymnasium.* Macmillan Co.
3. Tanner, *Game Program in Physical Education.* Ginn and Co.
4. Staley, *Games, Contests, and Relays.* A. S. Barnes and Co.
5. Smith, *Games and Recreational Methods.* Dodd, Mead and Co.
6. Anderson, *An Athletic Program for Elementary Schools.* A. S. Barnes and Co.
7. Munro, *Pyramid Building for Elementary Schools.* A. S. Barnes and Co.
8. Rodgers, *Handbook of Stunts.* Macmillan Co.
9. Pearl and Brown, *Health by Stunts.* Macmillan Co.
10. Haire, *The Folk Costume Book.* A. S. Barnes and Co.
11. Hillas and Knighton, *Athletic Dances and Simple Clogs.* A. S. Barnes and Co.
12. LaSalle, *Rhymes and Dances for Elementary Schools.*
13. Shafer, *Rhythms for Children,* Nos. 110, 111, 119 (Physical Education Handbook). A. S. Barnes and Co.
14. Playground and Recreation Association, *Play Areas—Their Design and Equipment.* A. S. Barnes and Co.
15. Neilson and Van Hagen, *State Manual of Physical Education for Elementary Schools of California.* State Printing Office, Sacramento, California.
16. Woodring and Schwendener, *Enriched Teaching of Physical Education in the High School* (A source book for teacher of physical education). Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

B. Dramatics

1. Mearns, *Creative Power.* Doubleday, Doran.
2. Grimball and Wells, *Costuming a Play.* Century Co.
3. Avery, Dorsey, and Sickels, *First Principles in Speech Training.* D. Appleton and Co.
4. Haire, *The Folk Costume Book.* A. S. Barnes and Co.
5. Chubb, *Festivals and Plays.* Harper Bros.
6. Merrill, *The Value, Place and Use of the Dramatic Instinct in Education.* Year Book, Francis Parker School, Chicago, Ill.
7. Merrill, *Creative Effort.* Yearbook, Francis Parker School, Chicago, Ill.
8. Ward, *Creative Dramatics for Upper Grades and Junior High School.* D. Appleton and Co.
9. Brown, *Creative Drama in the Lower School.* D. Appleton and Co.

C. Music

1. Fryberger, *Listening Lessons.* Silver, Burdett and Co.
2. Bonser, *Elementary School Curriculum* (pp. 145, 146, 357, 371). Macmillan Co.
3. Farnsworth, *Education Through Music.* American Book Co.
4. *Instruments of the Orchestra by Sight and Sound.* Victor Company.

Children's Library

1. *Progressive Music Series.* Silver, Burdett and Co.
2. *The Music Hour,* Silver, Burdett and Co.
3. *Hollis-Dann Music Series*

4. Riley and Gaynor, *Songs of the Child World.* John Church Co.
5. Satis N. Coleman, *Playing and Composing.* Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Magazines

A. Physical Education
American Physical Education Association, Journal of Health and Physical Education. Published by E. D. Mitchell, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

B. Dramatics
1. *Child Life.* Rand, McNally and Co.
2. *The Play Book.* Play Book Co., Madison, Wis.

C. Music
Current catalogues and booklets issued by phonograph companies

A COMPARISON OF THE USE OF INTENSIVE TRAINING AND OF WIDE READING IN THE IMPROVEMENT OF READING

IDA O'BRIEN
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This article is an account of an attempt to improve the reading of a group of pupils in a large consolidated school in a rural town in Connecticut. In this organization the sixth grade and the upper half of the fifth grade are in charge of one teacher. During the period of the reading program, which extended from January, 1928, to June, 1929, the enrollment was approximately forty. The same teacher had charge of the room during the entire period.

Fourteen of the pupils included in the study were in the fifth grade during the school year, 1927-1928, and were promoted to the sixth grade at the end of the year. The remaining four pupils repeated the sixth grade in 1928-1929. The other pupils in the room were included in the program, but absences, removals, promotions, and the entrance of new pupils made it impossible to secure complete data for all children. The accompanying tables show that only three of the pupils included in the study have I. Q's above 100. National I. Q's for all the pupils are in close agreement with the Otis I. Q's given in the tables.

The Stanford Achievement reading examination, Form A, was given in January, 1928. The results showed much retardation among the pupils in both the fifth and sixth grades, and a remedial program was at once initiated. The Diagnostic Chart from the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education* was used for the discovery and correction of errors. It was found that the following sections of the chart set forth the most common difficulties.

1. Lack of fluency, etc.
2. Frequent halts, etc.
3. Numerous requests, etc.
4. Habitual dependence, etc.
6. Breaks up sentences, etc.
8. Mispronunciations, etc.
9. Substitutions, etc.
12. Lack of interest in reading, etc.
15. Discouragement, etc.
17. Problems of capacity, etc.
21. Problems of comprehension, etc.
22. Inability to form judgments, etc.

A large chart containing each pupil's name, with checks in the appropriate columns indicating difficulties, was made by the teacher. As retardation was quite gen-

eral, the school was divided into five reading groups. Grade lines were disregarded. For a time the poorest readers had two short reading periods each day. Methods suggested in the Diagnostic Chart were applied. Pupils passed from one group to another, as certain difficulties were overcome. Reading materials suited to the level of the different groups were supplied. While instruction was varied to meet the needs of the different groups, the character of the work was largely remedial. All the groups learned something of phonetic attack. Breaking up words to find familiar parts, getting the words from context, learning common endings and beginnings were other methods of attack taught. Flash cards were used to speed up extremely slow readers and lip reading was discouraged. Many informal tests of comprehension were given. The children kept individual charts of progress.

In June, 1928, Form B of the Stanford reading examination was given. Table I compares the results of Form A with the results of Form B and shows the gain made by each pupil. In general, the greatest gains were made, not by the brightest nor by the dullest children in the group, but by the slow-learning children with I. Q's ranging from 79 to 98.

The supervisory program for the year

TABLE I

FIFTH GRADE—INTENSIVE TRAINING

Pupil	C. A. Jan., 1928	I. Q. Otis	Reading Age Stanford B June, 1928	Reading Grade	Reading Age Stanford A Jan., 1928	Reading Grade	Gain Reading Age	
							Yr.	Mo.
L.A.*	8–11	111	11–8	5–8	10–8	4–7	1	
D.C.	10–10	103	12–8	7	12	6–2		8
H.L.	11–6	100	12–9	7–1	12–4	6–5		5
A.K.	11–4	99	10–11	5	10–8	4–7		3
E.P.	11–4	98	11–10	6	10–4	4–4	1	6
K.P.	12–2	97	12–4	6–5	10–4	4–4	2	
B.C.	12–10	94	11–10	6	10–8	4–7	1	2
R.C.*	10–8	90	10–9	4–8	10–4	4–4		5
B.M.	10–7	89	12–4	6–5	12–4	6–5	0	0
I.P.	10–4	87	10–6	4–5	9–5	3–5	1	2
P.A.	11–4	84	11–4	5–5	9–7	3–8	1	9
P.P.	13–8	82	11–8	5–8	9–11	4	1	9
H.L.	11–9	79	10–11	5	9–7	3–8	1	4
M.N.	12–8	79	12–	6–2	10–8	4–7	1	4
M.O.*	13–	78	12	6–2	12	6–2	0	0
L.P.*	13–7	72	10–8	4–7	10–6	4–5		2
D.T.	14–5	70	10–5	4–4	9–7	3–8		10
G.B.	14	67	11–1	5–2	10–4	4–4		9

* In sixth grade.

TABLE II

SIXTH GRADE—WIDE READING PROGRAM

Pupil	C. A. May, 1929	I. Q. Otis	Reading Age Stanford V May, 1929	Reading Grade	Reading Age Stanford B June, 1928	Reading Grade	Gain Reading Age	
							Yr.	Mo.
L.A.*	10–3	111	12	6.4	11–8	5.8		4
D.C.	11–2	103	14–4	8.4	12–8	7	1	8
H.L.	12–2	100	14–1	8.2	12–9	7.1	1	4
A.K.	12–2	99	12–8	7	10–11	5	1	9
E.P.	11–11	98	11–11	6.1	11–10	6		1
K.P.	13–5	97	13–7	7.8	12–4	6.5	1	3
B.C.	13–5	94	11–8	5.8	11–10	6		– 2 lost
R.C.*	13	90	12–10	7.1	10–9	4.8	2	1
B.M.	11–11	89	12–2	6.4	12–4	6.5		– 2 lost
I.P.	11–8	87	11–2	5.3	10–6	4.5		8
P.A.	12–8	84	12–2	6.4	11–4	5.5		10
P.P.	14–6	82	11–8	5.8	11–8	5.8	0	0
H.L.	13–1	79	11–8	5.8	10–11	5		9
M.N.	14	79	12–3	6.4	12–0	6.2		3
M.O.*	14–4	78	12–3	6.4	12–0	6.2		3
L.P.*	14–11	72	11–3	5.4	10–8	4.7		7
D.T.	15–11	70	10–9	4.8	10–5	4.4		4
G.B.	15–4	67	11–7	5.7	11–1	5.2		6

* Repeating sixth grade.

1928-1929 in this school included a drive for the improvement of the social studies. The school had been notably low in these subjects in the Stanford examinations given at the end of the year 1927-1928. The supervisor had wondered frequently, as she directed the remedial programs of the preceding year, if all the minute concentration on the mechanics of reading was the wisest procedure. Would not more extensive reading in connection with purposeful activities of the pupils result in greater gains in reading?

In order to find the answer to this question, it was decided to continue the work for the improvement of reading by carrying on an extensive program in reading in connection with the social studies. Reading instruction was continued, but remedial phases were not emphasized.

Using current events as a starting point, the teacher and pupils initiated a number of units and activities. The antarctic expeditions and Hoover's trip to South America led to much reading on geography. Mr. Hoover's trip was completed long before the children had satisfied their curiosity concerning the geography and history of the countries visited. The events of the year led also into the study of history and civics of the United States. The pupils were interested and enthusiastic. They made use of newspapers, magazines, books from the town library, atlases, encyclope-

TABLE III

COMPARISON OF GAINS

Pupil	I.Q. Otis	Gains Intensive Reading Jan., 1928–June, 1928	Gains Wide Reading Sept., 1928–May 15, 1929
L.A.	111	1 yr.	4 mo.
D.C.	103	8 mo.	1 yr. 8
H.L.	100	5	1 4
A.K.	99	3	1 9
E.P.	98	1 4	1
K.P.	97	2	1 3
B.C.	94	1 2	– 2 Lost
R.C.	90	5	2 1
B.M.	89	0 0	– 2 Lost
I.P.	87	1 2	8
P.A.	84	1 9	10
P.P.	82	1 9	0
H.L.	79	1 4	9
M.N.	79	1 4	3
M.O.	78	0 0	3
L.P.	72	2	7
D.T.	70	10	4
G.B.	67	9	6

dias, and all the histories and geographies the school afforded. Library reading was greatly increased.

The gains in the social studies shown in the Stanford examinations given in May were highly gratifying. Table II shows the gains in reading for the year 1928-1929, and Table III compares the gains made from January, 1928, to June, 1928, with the gains made during the school year 1928-1929. Table II shows that the greatest gains under the extensive reading program were made by the brighter pupils, with the exception of L. A., the youngest and brightest child in the group, who made very little progress. She had been promoted to the sixth grade in January, 1928, and, although a good reader, she seemed too immature to be much interested in the social study program.

CONCLUSIONS

The study led the supervisor to adopt the following principles to guide in further study for the improvement of reading.

1. Use a system of checks and tests, such as the Crabb-McCall Standard Test Lessons in Reading, in order to know at all times at what level pupils are able to work.
2. Give only the minimum of mechanical and remedial instruction to bright and normal children who are at or above grade level. Provide for such children wide reading programs in connection with other interests and activities.
3. Do not depend upon interest and wide reading to increase the reading abilities of slow-learning children nor to overcome real reading difficulties of any children. Give slow children the maximum of instruction in the mechanics of reading and in remedial work. Give specific instruction for overcoming difficulties. Provide reading materials suited to the level of the pupils, both for reading instruction and for reading in connection with other interests and activities.
4. Make individual studies of the reading difficulties of sub-normal pupils and of pupils who for unknown reasons are making little progress in reading.

COMPARATIVE COSTS OF INTEGRATED ALL-YEAR SCHOOLING AND OF PART-TIME SCHOOLING[1]

WARREN A. ROE

Principal, Belmont Avenue School, Newark, New Jersey

This article will attempt to show how the costs of all-year schooling compare with those of ten-month schooling and summer school part-time schooling.

In the 1920-21 study by the Academic Council of Newark the Morton Street School (10-month) and the Belmont Avenue School (12-month) were compared as to product and cost. The entire pupil progress and operating cost records of these two schools are available for the fifteen year period from 1912 to 1927. Table I shows the costs from 1913 to 1923.

The record of pupil success and the relatively low cost were so heavily in favor of the all-year school that, in order to check more recent results, the principal of the Morton Street School, Mr. Kenneth K. King, and the writer collaborated in 1929 to compare the results for the years from 1924 to June, 1927, and assembled the data shown in Table II.

The term *A grade* is used to indicate the point where a pupil passed to the next higher grade. The data included the summer session costs at Morton Street School and gave credit to each school for the amounts earned from the New Jersey school funds by pupil attendance. The figures are from the official records of the Newark Board of Education. During the three years period the all-year school had an A grade success cost of $67.03; the ten-month school with summer session had

TABLE I

COMPARATIVE COSTS OF ALL-YEAR SCHOOLING AND PART-TIME SCHOOLING, 1913–1923

	Belmont Avenue School (All-Year)	Morton Street School (Part-Time)	Difference
Total number of graduates	1,529	1,070	459
Total ordinary expense*	$859,144.72	$856,019.90	$3,124.82
Average cost per graduate	561.89	800.02	238.13

* Includes allowance for summer attendance from state funds.

Total saving of all-year plan over combined ten-month and summer session over a period of eleven years:

1529 graduates × $238.13=$364,100.77

Total value of gain of extra graduates, figuring the cost per graduate of traditional plan:

459 graduates × $800.02=$367,209.18

[1] This is the last of the series of six articles on the all-year school, by Mr. Roe and Mr. Brinkerhoff.

a similar cost of $92.30. Each graduate of the all-year school cost $856.57 in terms of gross cost, while each graduate of the ten-month school cost $1,349.33. For $12,604.50, a net increase of 4% over the three year period, the all-year school produced 143 extra graduates, an increase of 44%, had 1268 more pupil-grades completed in terms of complete grade success, gave 10,604 more months of schooling, a 24% increase, of which 8,141 months were increased success at a 23% rate, and had 2,463 months of failure, an increased failure of 33%. This interesting paradox of increased success and increased repetition is produced by the fact

TABLE II

COMPARATIVE COSTS FROM 1924 TO JUNE, 1927

	Belmont	Morton	Difference	Per cent
Net cost	$313,505.88	$300,901.38	$12,604.50	4%
Total number of graduates	366	223	143	44%
Total number of pupils completing A grades	4,528	3,260	1,268	38%
Total number of pupils failing A grades	622	429	193	45%
Total number of months of schooling given (Sum of number of months each pupil attended)	53,694	43,090	10,604	24%
Total number of months of success given	43,791	35,650	8,141	23%
Total number of months of repetition given	9,903	7,440	2,463	33%
Cost per graduate	$856.57	$1,349.33	$492.76	63%
Cost per grade success	$67.03	$92.30	$25.27	72%

TABLE III

COMPARATIVE RESULTS OF COSTS FROM TABLES I AND II

	All-year School Cost per Graduate	Ten-month School Cost per Graduate	Saving per Graduate All-year Plan
1912–1923	$561.89	$ 800.02	$238.13
1924–1927	856.57	1,349.33	492.76
	Cost per Grade Success	Cost per Grade Success	Saving
1924–1927	$67.03	$92.30	$25.27

that the use of the plant two months extra as compared with thirty half-days extra presents a possible 133% progress in the all-year school to be related to a possible 100% ten-month progress (plus the 2%, which is about the average summer school effect on pupil progress in Newark). To evaluate all-year costs and pupil progress correctly, it is necessary constantly to equate these factors.

For the five-year period from 1921 to 1925 the Superintendent of Supplies for Newark gives the data shown in Table IV.

The figures give the total *annual* cost per

TABLE IV

OFFICIAL FIGURES FOR ANNUAL PER CAPITA COSTS OF THE VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOLS IN NEWARK, NEW JERSEY

	Ten-month Schools		Twelve-month Schools	
	Traditional School	Platoon or Alternating School	All-year Traditional	All-year Platoon or Alternating
1921	$58.04	$66.56	$65.60	$74.62
1922	69.98	69.85	73.31	86.16
1923	65.10	73.40	73.75	86.02
1924	68.56	74.97	79.65	91.19
1925	72.66	76.15	81.47	94.47
Average	66.87	72.19	74.76	86.49

TABLE V

HIGH SCHOOL COSTS—COMPARISON OF PER CAPITA COSTS IN TEN-MONTH AND IN ALL-YEAR HIGH SCHOOLS IN NEWARK, NEW JERSEY, FROM DATA PREPARED BY WILLIAM WIENER, PRINCIPAL OF CENTRAL COMMERCIAL AND MANUAL TRAINING ALL-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL

	1922–23	1923–24	1924–25	1925–26	1926–27	1927–28	1928–29	1929–30
10-month high schools average	170.29	174.90	196.49	179.36	205.90	205.51	207.41	225.83
Central all-year high school, 12 months	186.82	201.00	204.62	201.04	215.69	212.11	230.52	235.96
Central high school, nine months subject year	138.12	150.75	153.47	150.75	161.76	159.08	172.89	176.97
All-year saving per subject year per pupil	$32.17	$24.15	$43.02	$28.61	$44.24	$46.43	$34.52	$48.86

pupil, but the year covers a grade in the traditional school and one and one-third grades in the all-year school. The *grade* cost per pupil therefore is as follows for each type of school:

Ten-month Grade Cost

Traditional School	Alternating School
$66.87	$72.19

All-year Grade Cost

Traditional School	Alternating School
$56.07	$64.86

As salaries and costs of operation rise, the all-year schools show increasing economies in the elementary level.

The nine-month subject courses at Central Commercial and Manual Training High School are accepted by New Jersey as equivalent to the ten-month courses at the other high schools. As in the elementary school, Central offers a 133% progress rate as compared with a ten-month 100% rate (plus summer school, which in the past has approximated somewhat under 2%). The saving per pupil-subject-year has steadily risen until within the year 1929-1930 Central was saving Newark $48.86 upon every pupil (to which might be added a further saving from the summer session, since Central summer term is upon a 4½ subject basis as compared with a one or two subject basis in the summer part-time session of the 10-month high schools). All-year high school operation is economical and an asset both in educational progress and in budget expense.

Some school administrators hesitate in the present trend toward integrated full-

TABLE VI

COST PER PROMOTION IN PART-TIME SUMMER SCHOOLS FOR THREE YEARS

Year	Average Attendance	Pupils Promoted	Total Cost	Per Promotion Cost
1921	13,206	1,680	$58,284.08	$36.69
1922	13,016	1,499	67,612.52	45.10
1923	12,502	1,702	49,603.65	29.14

TABLE VII

COST PER PROMOTION FOR TWO SUMMER MONTHS OF ALL-YEAR SCHOOLS
(Newark all-year elementary schools for summer term)

Year	Average Attendance	Pupils Promoted	Total Cost	Per Promotion Cost
1921	9,467	6,802	$136,202.06	$20.02
1922	9,613	6,982	149,314.97	21.39
1923	10,070	7,094	141,545.96	19.95

PROPERTY OF

time schools and offer their communities part-time one session summer schools plus playgrounds as substitutes. Data bearing upon this situation are available. Tables VII and IX cover the summers of 1921, 1922, and 1923.

The record must be interpreted in terms of five months as represented by a traditional summer school promotion and three months by an all-year school promotion. But after reducing this element to a common term there is no doubt that the all-year school is relatively less expensive and produces a more valuable product in its summer sessions. That the pupils and parents estimate this correctly is indicated by the fact that ten out of every twelve all-year pupils attend the summer term, and of these ten, seven secure a term's promotion; while in the traditional schools twelve out of fifty-three attend and less than two secure promotion.

In order that a more recent period may be shown, the summer record of 1930 is summarized in the next two tables.

For 1930 the elementary cost was $130,888.68 in the summer school. Dividing this by 1,139 grade-years, we arrive at a per capita cost of $114.91 for each grade-year success. The all-year elementary cost was $141,634.97. Dividing this by 2,503 grade-years gives a per capita cost of $56.58 for

TABLE VIII

RELATION OF SUMMER PROMOTIONS TO SUMMER ATTENDANCE AND CITY ATTENDANCE FOR PART-TIME SUMMER SCHOOLS

Year	Average City Attendance in All Ten-month Schools, September to June	Average Attendance Traditional Summer Schools	Total Promotions in Traditional Summer Schools
1921	50,780	13,206	1,680
1922	51,803	13,016	1,499
1923	53,502	12,502	1,702

TABLE IX

RELATION OF SUMMER TERM PROMOTIONS TO SUMMER TERM ATTENDANCE AND ALL-YEAR CITY ATTENDANCE

Year	Average All-year Attendance for City	Average All-year Attendance July and August	Total All-year Promotions Summer Term
1921	10,759	9,467	6,802
1922	12,206	9,613	6,982
1923	12,184	10,070	7,094

each grade-year of success. If the kindergarten figures are included, this cost is reduced to $54.81. The combined summer elementary school and playground cost was $163,104.75; and considering these organizations combined to be a substitute or equivalent for all-year schools, the grade progress cost was $143.20 per unit.

TABLE X

1930 Costs

	All-year Schools	Summer Schools
Senior high schools	$ 59,090.15	$ 62,403.18
Junior high schools	13,061.87	.....
Elementary schools	141,634.97	130,888.68
Special schools	8,644.08	.....
Playgrounds	.....	32,216.07

Proponents of the summer school-playground combination will doubtless point out that it is unfair to reckon playground charges as a part of schooling costs, and will point out further that many thousand children attend summer school merely to "strengthen work." No reason exists for administering all-year or any other type of school without adequate play in both curricular and extra-curricular activities. Moreover, it has vigorously been charged that all-year schools increase repetition. It is impossible to have the same items

TABLE XI

Comparative Pupil Progress of Elementary Summer Schools and Playgrounds and All-year School Pupils, Newark, New Jersey, July and August, 1930

	All-year Schools			Summer Schools				
Grade	No. on Roll	No. Promoted	Equivalent Grade Years	No. Enrolled	No. Who Made Up Failure	No. Recommended for Advanced Standing	Total	Equivalent Grade-Years
8	1,125	1,019	339⅔	1,219	114	127	241	120½
7	1,027	884	294⅔	1,908	150	232	382	191
6	1,083	959	319⅔	2,334	142	286	428	214
5	1,015	854	284⅔	2,505	150	228	378	189
4	1,066	942	314	2,570	86	184	270	135
3	1,035	879	293	2,604	87	206	293	146½
2	1,228	1,038	346	2,584	43	158	201	100½
1	1,130	934	311⅓	2,097	41	44	85	42½
Total	8,709	7,509	2,503	17,821	813	1,465	2,278	1,139
Kdg.	780	242	81					

both liabilities and assets at the same time. If repeating a three-month term is retardation, then part-time summer schooling that shows no educational progress is of the same status. If "strengthening work" euphemistically covers a failure to succeed, certainly the increased schooling given by the all-year school must be considered an educational asset rather than a liability. Any social value in caring for children, in keeping them off the streets, in preventing moral contamination, and in securing right situations, that can be advocated for part-time half-session summer schools, is far more adequately secured in properly administered all-year schools and at a much more economical cost.

The situation with respect to secondary education is similar. Four Newark summer high schools in 1930 had 994 pupils passing one subject, 1,372 passing two subjects, 2,180 pupils passing one review subject, 1,977 passing a new subject, and 74 taking a subject the third time and passing. The cost of all this was $62,403.81. Central All-year High School cost $59,090.15 and had 1,913 pupils taking an average of 4¾ subjects at an 85% promotion rate. Principal Wiener of Central C. & M. T. High School gives the information in Table XII as representative of the secondary summer school situation.

All these factual data demonstrate that the opinions expressed in a recent report of the New York Teachers' Council are erroneous. New York City would raise the educational level of its people, give more educational service, and save many millions of dollars in construction costs by adopting an all-year plan of organization. Other cities now maintaining summer schools would benefit proportionately. Possibly, the twelve-month salary plan in New York has produced a fear of additional service requirement without increased remuneration, and that, rather than public

TABLE XII

SUMMER SCHOOL STATISTICS—ENROLLMENT IN HIGH SCHOOLS

	1923–24	1924–25	1925–26	1926–27	1927–28	1928–29	1929–30
10-month schools							
Barringer	1043	1043	1001	999	1045	1056	1096
South Side	865	865	1003	999	1189	1077	992
East Side	....	....	....	....	....	394	449
Central—All-year	1977	2095	2099	2120	2273	2128	2180

AVERAGE PER CAPITA COST PER SUBJECT

10-month schools							
Barringer	9.29	9.67	13.37	15.53	15.29	15.21	15.58
South Side	4.08	8.14	11.62	12.61	13.76	13.74	15.00
East Side	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	19.33	19.63
All-year school	11.16	11.16	11.36	11.98	11.78	12.80	13.09

interest, is the fundamental basis for the findings of the report.

There are several distinct types of all-year schooling. The Newark plan contemplated that a pupil would attend school four terms and thereby increase the rate of progress so that in every eight-year period 100% of the pupils would use the plant and at the same time maintain a 133⅓% rate of progression. Quite obviously, unless perfection were attained, the rate would fall below this point. In actual practice the Newark yearly rate of promotion in all-year schools since 1912 has averaged only a little over 100%, due chiefly to three factors. First, some thirty per cent of Newark pupils are ten-month pupils attending all-year schools; second, all-year and ten-month pupils transfer continuously between the two types of schools, in one case adding accumulated retardation and in the other taking away any increased progress; third, promotion policies in the several schools have varied considerably, tending in some cases to produce widely varying progress rates.

Aliquippa, Pennsylvania, has adopted a plan of using the school plant twelve months with three-fourths of the pupils in attendance each term and one-fourth on vacation. This gives 133⅓% building usage as compared with ten-month building use but does not increase the educational progress or level except as pupils are permitted to stay the fourth period. It can hardly be classified as all-year schooling, although it is all-year plant usage. It does, however, bring out certain financial aspects and Superintendent Vanderslice's report is given herewith.

We have carefully figured over our savings for the current year (July 1, 1930 to July 1, 1931), a summarized account of which we herewith submit to you. This is the first year in which all of our schools are operating on the all-year plan. By our method of staggering schedules during the different quarters or, in other words, having some pupils on vacation each quarter, the net saving this year is thirty (30) schoolrooms. On this basis we have computed the figures included below. This accounts for every item except the saving in instructional service, which is calculated on the basis of the majority of our pupils who fail in making their work up in twelve weeks rather than in eighteen weeks under the nine months' plan.

The total enrollment in our schools this year will be slightly in excess of 7200.

ESTIMATED SAVINGS EFFECTED THROUGH THE OPERATION OF ALL SCHOOLS OF THE BOROUGH OF ALIQUIPPA UNDER THE ALL-YEAR PLAN FOR THE YEAR JULY 1, 1930 TO JULY 1, 1931

Department	Amount Saved
General control	None
Instructional service	$ 3,900.00
Auxiliary agencies	None
Operation of plant:	
Fuel	601.20
Light and power	634.50
Maintenance	None
Fixed charges:	
State tax on school bonds	1,200.00
Fire insurance	150.00
Debt service	18,000.00
Capital outlay	None
Total	$24,485.70

This makes a total saving of $24,485.70 in a budget of $654,916.74, of which $552,916.74 constitutes the receipts from taxes. If this additional amount had to be raised it would have to be by taxation, because other sources of revenue would not change. So, you see, the all-year school reduces the taxes during the current year about 4½%, which is slightly over 1¼ mill, our tax rate being 28 mills.

We expect to increase the saving each year through a more thorough equalization of students in all quarters. I should say in this connection that savings tend to be reduced by all-year attendance. This would not be the case if children would progress regularly through school so that they graduate earlier as a result of the four-quarter plan. It happens that they frequently repeat work which was poorly done or they take extra work in their additional quarter, making it somewhat difficult to compute accurate savings on this account.

It might be questioned whether Superintendent Vanderslice should not have included under savings part of both maintenance and capital outlay, but even with these left out the saving is plain. He does bring out four important factors: first, that all-year usage is economical; second, that pupils seek to avail themselves of the opportunity; third, that to the degree that more pupils continue longer in school these savings are modified; and fourth, that the system itself provides more than enough economy to cover this increased educational service to the public.

SUMMARY

All-year schooling gives more education, better social service, increased educational opportunity, more economical operation and construction costs, and a lower tax rate. It is more complicated to operate, involves greater administrative skill, and creates new laws of school operation both of educational progress and of business administration. With factual data taking the place of opinion based upon emotional reactions, it is becoming possible to determine what type of schooling is best for any community.

It is the reasoned judgment of the writers of these articles that in the fullness of time some form of well-organized all-year schooling will supplant the present makeshift types of part-time schooling in urban communities to the mutual welfare of child, teacher, and parent.

SOME BASIC PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE DIRECTION OF THE CONFERENCE PERIOD FOLLOWING AN ACTIVITY PERIOD

LUCY NULTON

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The conference period following work period is so vital to the educational value of the work concerned; it admits of so much in principle, information, and application; it is filled with such wide and comprehensive interests that frequently this conference period presents itself as a particularly difficult time, full of baffling uncertainty and demanding what seems to be an unusual amount of skill. Yet there are certain fundamental principles by which we may be guided, which determine teacher participation in all well-directed conferences, whether consciously used or not. Indeed, so fundamental are these principles that they grow out of attitude and their *modus operandi* means not teacher mode as "method" but, more significant than that, teacher *attitude*.

For, most basic of all factors making for a rich conference period is the attitude which pervades the situation. Out of this grow other principles and ways of meeting the unexpected when it does appear.

1. The conference period must be permeated by an open-minded, unpatterned attitude on the part of both teacher and children. Try to create about this conference period an informal, give-and-take, impersonal feeling. It is a time when children learn to form judgments, to give and take criticisms. Let every child feel free to make his contribution sincerely and let that contribution be accepted open-mindedly and experimentally.

2. Do not laugh at a child's ideas, expressions, or work. To him they are vital and significant. (All too frequently they are richer in possibilities than is adult work.) He has an identification with them which is real and absorbing. To laugh at them brings a serious emotional reaction.

One is reminded of the little boy who reported in conference that he had seven hens and a rooster and that all of them were laying well except the rooster. Some observers in the room laughed, whereupon the child sat down and could not be lured into another contribution during conference for several days.

Neither should we allow children to ridicule contributions of others.

3. Always encourage constructive criticisms. Do not allow "fussiness" or fault finding. Discourage constant adverse criticisms. When a child offers an adverse criticism which is well founded, ask him to suggest means of improving that point.

Do not discuss too many poor qualities of a piece of work at one period. One usually can assimilate very few adverse criticisms or suggestions at a time. If necessary, come back to that work at another conference for further suggestions.

Try always to find some desirable qualities in a piece of work and to develop within the children a habit of looking for the desirable and constructive. This means that when a child has shown growth or when this is his first attempt with a certain medium the children should recognize that factor and take it into account.

4. It is not necessary to discuss every piece of work at every conference period. There is usually not time for that nor is it desirable. A child should learn to make applications of suggestions and principles to his own work without having them definitely pointed out to him *every* time. Certain representative pieces of work may be chosen for discussion when a child needs encouragement, when he is timid and ill at ease before the group, or when he has done particularly well. A piece of work which may furnish stimulation toward further desired activity should come before the group. The final satisfactory completion of work should always be noted.

5. (a) When bringing subjects and work to the group for discussion, try informally to maintain some logical organization of matter. For the child this is the beginning of training in orderly thinking. Do not flit from clay work to sewing, and then back to clay work, unless there is some sound psychological reason for such diversity.

(b) In most cases hold the discussion to one subject until that has been completed. Do not allow irrelevant interruptions. Build up a group attitude which disapproves and ignores irrelevancy. Recognize such criticisms as, "I beg your pardon, Jack, but we're not talking about that now," or "Yes, but does that have anything to do with this?"

6. Constantly the emphasis of the conference period should be placed upon ideas rather than technique. If the child is in the manipulative stage of experience his work should be recognized as manipulation and he should be given a chance to manipulate freely. When his work is brought to conference he will probably have little to say about it, except to tell, "I worked with clay," and perhaps to describe briefly in short, awe-stricken sentences how he handled it.

However, in time, when he brings his work he may add, or the teacher may suggest, concerning the manipulative result in his hand, "It is a little bowl," or, "I wonder if John is going to make a larger bowl tomorrow?" And so, his manipulation of a raw material has come to carry an idea. Now the conference must stimulate further ideas by such questions as, "What other dishes could John make in his tea set?" "What other animals does this make you think of?" etc. His technique may still be so crude and his control over the medium so unformed that bowls, cups, jars, and plates may be like the

> Two little sand heaps by the sea,
> As much alike as *p* and *p*,

but the ideas are not alike and it is the expression of ideas which we are after.

If their ideas are recognized as distinct, interesting, and valuable, presently technique will come along hand in hand with ideas and the children will be inquiring, out of a realistic stage of development, "How can I make my bowl so it will hold long-stemmed flowers like iris?" Then they have arrived at the stage where they are interested in getting a satisfying result, when they want to know *how* to do a thing so as to produce a result which will function.

The conference period must now acknowledge interest in technique, but technique must come as a means of carrying an idea, not as an end in itself. Through emphasis upon the idea and its most fitting embodiment, growth both in technique and in ideas may be stimulated. At this stage, particularly, the conference period should develop such judgments as: "Will it work?" "Can you use it?" "Why did the handle drop off?" etc.

This interest in technique, however, is no reason nor excuse for an imposition of technique upon children. Then, more than

ever, we should be on guard against stressing technique or we shall pay for a skilled result at the expense of a dearth of ideas. Whatever the stage of development the conference period must emphasize ideas rather than technique, even though the wheel is wobbly and the picture crude.

7. The conference period must be used as a time for building up standards and setting up values. The children are learning to form judgments and this period must give them some basis of judgment. They should be helped to provide themselves with standards and principles which are their own because they have worked them out of their own experiences in meeting problems and difficulties. Every criticism, every suggestion should have some reasonable basis, some principle which will help to make it applicable to the next undertaking, else we find ourselves going round and round in dull repetition of the same non-significant remarks.

"Do you think that we can use John's chair?" "Why must she turn that hem under twice?" "How do we always need to form handles of any kind in clay work?" "Why is this not a good design for such a large space?" Such questions constantly thrown back upon the group give direction toward a formulation of standards and of principles. Many principles of good art may be developed in their truest relation, that of significant and beautiful use.

8. If the conference period is alive it will be constantly taking new growths and presenting unexpected possibilities. We should try to recognize these and to seize every opportunity as it occurs. It will offer many chances (usually unexpectedly) for the giving of information as information for its own sake. It may lead to a deeply appreciative experience of the beautiful in poems, stories, music, flowers, or pictures. Occasionally, when the period is ripe for such an experience, bring to the group a poem, a lovely picture, a rare bit of sculpture, or some simple wood flower. There are times when experience is too deep for words or too elusively joyous for formulation. At such times let it find its identification in these things of beauty and these outgrowths of the experiences of others.

9. (a) Recognize the conference period as the most fruitful time for the development of language. It is far richer than any set language period, for the children have some definite, significant things to talk about and a real purpose in talking.

(b) Encourage the child to express himself in his own language. It will not be an adult language. Most frequently it is more graphic, more spontaneous, and more forceful. Do not kill his spontaneity and quell him to a stilted, unnatural language by telling him what to say and how to say it.

10. The teacher must avoid doing too much of the talking. She must give the children a chance. Moreover, she must be able to skilfully and inconspicuously draw out what each child has to say and encourage him to contribute his best to the group discussion. She, herself, must be in the background as much as possible.

11. The conference period must offer a chance to *every* child. The teacher must draw out and encourage the backward, retiring child, while, at the same time, she must restrain the child who would monopolize time and attention.

Here is the chance to lead out the child who perpetually "follows suit," who always first looks around to see what others are doing and then tries to make exactly the same thing. The conference affords a chance to criticize his work because it is the same and to give him some stimulation toward individual expression.

There should be a balanced equi-chance of encouragement, opportunity, and recog-

nition for the shy, retiring child and of wise, counseling limitation for the over-aggressive child. Both must learn to fit into the group and to contribute wisely to group enterprises. In so far as possible, without forcing, try consciously to secure some response from every member of the group. Do not neglect the quiet child.

12. On the other hand, do not over-force a child to expression. Oftentimes growth is taking place within which we, on the outside, can not see. Growth is a silent, non-visible thing usually. All reaction, indeed much reaction, is not evident. While that child is sitting quietly, apparently doing nothing, apparently not identified with what is taking place, he may be growing to a readiness for outward participation. This human organism grew nine long months before it came to any readiness for outward growth. We must learn to wait for wholesome growth.

We can not force inward silent growth. We can only content ourselves with building up rich situations, furnishing abundant experiences, and quietly studying the child, biding our time until he has found himself and is ready to become a visibly active participant. The teacher who has watched and helped this take place can never forget the breathless thrill that went with the child's achievement, nor that hushed poignancy just before his first attempt. It is a kind of birth.

13. We need not expect every child to make an active contribution every day nor to be equally interested in every piece of work and every topic. No adult of widest interests is that.

Children have their special interests, their side interests and hobbies. These may be just as educative and should receive just as appreciative recognition.

14. Take this time, nor ever fail, to recognize in some way what each child has brought from his home for this enterprise. Whether it be snails, boxes, flowers, books, or snakes, recognize each child's contribution. If the contribution is not acceptable in itself, do not frown upon it. Take it for what it is worth and recognize the spirit which prompted him to bring it. Often we do not know how barren is the child's home life, how little chance he has to share. Always this contribution is not merely a material thing. Always it carries something of this child's own self with it.

15. Prepare for the conference period as you would for any other learning situation. Sometimes it is a help to list the various pieces of work with a brief note as to what the difficulties are, what should be done next, or what direction and stimulation the child needs. Look over the day in retrospect and see where the next day's work must strengthen and continue today's.

Much preparation for the conference must be made during the work period which precedes it. The teacher should be constantly moving about among the working children, noting their difficulties, watching their control, seeing their adjustments to others, and recognizing their problems. During this time she should be making mental notes of certain problems which must not fail to be brought to conference. She should be setting up definitely in her own mind the standards which should this day be formulated. She should remind herself of certain commendation to be given before the whole group, of definite habit formation which needs checking or encouraging, and of definite facts to be given. She should be checking upon how well each child is using his time, with provisions for such a check from the group during conference. Such activity as this on the part of the teacher should prevent her from coming to conference with a feeling of complete uncertainty as to what may arise and of fear as to how to meet it.

It is hoped that the recognition of such underlying principles as these may show up in sharp contra-distinction the deplorable, but sometimes observable, method wherein the teacher plans at home the night before *exactly* what is to be discussed, writes out definite questions from which to "lead" the conference, and keeps this paper in her hand the next day, holding conference from it. No wonder conference becomes a dull, formal routine!

Instead, above all, may there be a spirit of creative work; a give-and-take, open-minded attitude; a non-forcing, sympathetic understanding of child growth; and a glad recognition of abundant, growing ideas. Too many times a conference period turns to dust and ashes because the teacher is most concerned with dry, dead technique instead of living, growing ideas; or because she wants this period to run smoothly along in an orderly, foreordained groove—which a living, growing, vital thing will never do.

TEACHING READING TO FOREIGN CHILDREN

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Very few people have any idea of the extent of the problem of teaching foreign children to read English. Outside of the teaching profession, it is regarded merely as a process of telling them how to pronounce the words and to know in a general way what they mean. The teachers themselves, however, know that it is a much bigger undertaking than this, but even they frequently fail to comprehend fully the immensity of the problem. It would be easier for them to sense its full proportions if they could think of it as teaching a foreign language. They know that thousands of more or less mature English-speaking students have spent a great many hours studying foreign languages, both ancient and modern, but the number of these students who ever progress far enough to read the literature of these languages is almost negligible. This shows that the task of learning to read a foreign language is very great even for more mature students. How many difficulties, then, must the learning of reading present to the little foreign child when he is expected not only to master the many mechanical difficulties but also to learn at the same time a language which is not his mother tongue.

There is no doubt that the foreign child has an advantage over the above mentioned students in that he usually begins to study English much earlier in his life than they do the study of a foreign language, and also he hears English spoken outside of his home much more often than these students hear the language which they are studying. Nevertheless, there are elements of similarity in the two situations. In order to read any language intelligently one must know the exact meaning of most of the words, one must have some knowledge of the grammar of the language, and must know something of the cultural background of the people who speak it.

An example or two will serve to illustrate this. To persons who have traveled in Italy or to patrons of Italian restaurants in our American cities, the word *raviole* means a great deal more than it does to a

person who has just happened to come across the word in his reading but who has not had the experience of eating this delicious Italian food. And, again, the word *patio* will have a very different significance to an apartment dweller in a large city than it will to a traveler in Spanish America. The former may think of the small, bare courts which he sees back of the apartments in the city and will therefore not have a very pleasant mental picture of the word, while the latter may have pleasant memories of patios which he has seen in his travels. Thus, one gets back to the old psychological principle that the meaning which any word conveys to any individual depends upon the number and kind of meaningful associations which that word recalls. These, in turn, depend upon experience.

These examples show some of the elements that are involved in the understanding of words. To make them really convey to a foreigner what they mean to a native may mean the building up of wholly new ideas in the mind of the former, or the replacing of ideas which he has brought from home with entirely different and perhaps contradictory ideas. To the teacher this may mean the supplying of the entire interpretive background in order that the words may have the correct meaning to the children. To do this is a very different proposition from simply telling the names of words and their meaning to children who already have the apperceptive background.

The way in which difference in cultural ideas may affect the interpretation of words may be illustrated by the vast difference in what the word "clean" means to various individuals. To one child it may mean a daily bath and an entire change of clothing; to another it may mean a bath accompanied by a change of clothing on Saturday night; while to some of our future citizens it may mean a bath in the summertime only. The latter children wash their faces and hands more or less frequently and consider themselves clean. The teacher who has these three types of children in her class has a problem to solve in trying to make each child attain to a certain standard of cleanliness, because of the different concepts of the word held by the children.

Few teachers realize that this building up of meaning concepts is absolutely fundamental if they desire anything like complete comprehension of material read. Nor do they know that they must create these concepts for the ordinary things by which the children are surrounded. It is surprising, but true, that many foreign children do not know the English names for, nor the uses of, any number of articles which they see in their homes every day. I had had an extensive experience teaching foreign children before I began to realize this fact. My eyes were opened by a seemingly trivial experience. I had asked a sixteen-year-old boy—a Junior in High School—to lend me a bowl. He didn't know what I meant, so he asked his older brother, who was a student in Junior College, what I wanted. He didn't know either, so they told me to go to the kitchen and get it myself. These boys were of average intelligence and had gone through the grades in a better-than-average school system.

This incident aroused my curiosity and I began to question a number of the foreign children in the same schools about the things which they might be expected to use daily. I found that their ignorance of common everyday things was appalling. At the same time these children could define and use fairly well, in conversation, a number of words which they had learned solely from books. The explanation seems to be that the teachers had totally failed

to comprehend the fact that these children had brought from home no meaning concepts for the things with which most English-speaking children would have been familiar. Therefore, the names of these common things might have been mentioned thousands of times in the classroom without the teacher having the slightest suspicion that they were only words to the children.

These fundamental concepts must be built up in the kindergarten and first two grades. It is therefore necessary for the teacher in each one of these grades to determine whether or not the children know the meanings of the words which she uses. She can not take it for granted, even though she uses the simplest and most common words. She must make definite provision that they will be understood. Many of the modern textbooks, especially those which are designed for silent reading, are very helpful in this way as they are profusely illustrated with pictures of the common things that form a basis for understanding the material things by which we are surrounded.

The function of the kindergarten in the reading program is to give the children a stock of ideas about their environment that they may later be able to use these ideas to interpret what they read. However, the kindergartner who teaches foreign children must not only give them these enriching experiences but she must also do some direct teaching of words and plan for a definite check-up to make sure that the children have learned to pronounce the words correctly and that they have associated the correct meaning with the word. This does not mean formal word drill or anything of that type, but it means a clearly outlined objective on the part of the teacher in order that she may be sure that her children are acquiring an English vocabulary.

The teaching of words in the first grade involves the same technique that was employed in the kindergarten as far as teaching of word meanings and pronunciation is concerned, and includes the added problems of teaching the child to recognize the word in print and in script. However, a very large number of first grade teachers think only of the latter part, i.e., teaching the children to recognize the words in print and to pronounce them correctly. They make no provision for developing the meanings because they think that the children will know what the word means when they hear it pronounced. Children thus taught often become fluent oral readers and often fool even their own teachers into believing that they understand the content. A few well-directed questions which require the children to tell the meaning of the sentences in their own words instead of those of the book soon reveal the fact that they have very little comprehension of the content.

If the foreign child is to make a word really function in his vocabulary, he must have a mental picture of the meaning of the word and also a chain of associations which will recall this picture when the word is heard. This must be built up by direct teaching. Pictures, actions, and conversation may be used for this purpose. The following is an example: Suppose the new word to be learned is "robin." Before the word is presented in print at all, it is necessary for the teacher to create the mental image. This may be done by showing the children a picture of a robin and telling them a few simple facts about robins. In this way the word takes on meaning and a complete concept is formed. Words of this type which may be illustrated by pictures, and words which may be illustrated by actions, as "run" or "jump," are much simpler to teach, of course, than words like "some" or "when."

When one stops to consider that even the first grade children learn several hundred words in a semester, the size of the task of teaching the meanings of so many words becomes apparent. As the child progresses into the second and third grades, the number of new words with which he comes in contact each day increases so rapidly that it is impossible for the teacher to develop the meanings of all of them. Her problem is then to select the words which really are the key words to the meaning of the selection and teach those. When the intermediate grades are reached, this problem of handling word meanings becomes more complicated than ever. The vocabularies of children's books in the first three grades are composed of words which are mainly objective and deal with the properties of material things. In the intermediate grades, however, words whose meaning is abstract occur with greater and greater frequency. In these grades, too, the number of new words becomes overwhelming.

It is in the intermediate grades that the differences in culture and in the whole attitude toward life begin to make it difficult for the children to understand the meanings of abstract words. The newer textbooks are grouping stories under such headings as "Patriotism," "Humor," "Friendship," etc. In a school where the children are homogeneous as to nationality and where they come from Anglo-Saxon stock, they bring from home more or less uniform ideas of the meaning of such abstract terms as those mentioned above, and moreover these ideas are more or less in conformity with those advanced by the authors of the books. However, in a school where there are a number of nationalities and where the homes represented are those of recent immigrants, no such homogeneity of opinion exists. The ideals which these stories aim to develop may or may not be in conformity with those which the children have already formed. Therefore the whole task of teaching the meaning of these terms is much more complex than it would be under other circumstances.

The teaching of literary material in the intermediate grades is much more difficult than the teaching of factual material for the reasons stated above. Literature deals with attitudes toward life, with ethical concepts, and with moral ideas. Words expressing these things are often abstract or, if not abstract, are used in a figurative sense and depend upon the cultural background of the reader for their interpretation. For this reason it is necessary for the teacher to develop in the minds of the pupils some idea of the culture of the people with whom the story deals before the children can have an adequate appreciation of the story. Unless this is done they will get none of the finer meanings but will simply be able to outline the facts and perhaps name the characters in the story. The purpose for which it was written will be entirely lost.

Another factor which complicates the teaching of word meanings in the intermediate grades is the attitude of a great many teachers toward teaching words. They have heard educators deplore the teaching of isolated words so much that they are more or less at sea as to what to do with the word-study problem. Many of them have not received any training along this line and others are so afraid of doing the wrong thing that they do nothing at all. However, the authors of the newer textbooks have recognized this difficulty and are making definite provision for word study. Games and exercises are devised for review and drill upon words which have been presented previously.

My experience with foreign children has taught me that it is necessary to do a great deal of work upon word meanings before

asking them to study a selection, if they are to spend their study time profitably. In almost all selections there are a few words which may be called key words. The entire meaning of the paragraph often hinges upon these words. By teaching these few, before allowing the children to read the selection, enough of the meaning is revealed to them that they may be able to get a fair idea of the general content. Further study should then be put upon other words which serve to clarify the thought. One selection thoroughly studied in this manner is worth a great deal more to the children than a very large number of selections hastily read without any attention to the finer shades of thought.

The foregoing paragraphs make it apparent that the teaching of reading to foreign children is a very complex problem. It has to do with the building of backgrounds and the creation of cultural ideas in addition to the mere teaching of word recognition and pronunciation and the checking up on comprehension of content. The teaching of word meanings implies the building up of entire meaning concepts through which the spoken word creates a mental image. If words are to have a common meaning for different individuals, it is necessary that the mental images which they evoke shall be alike. Similar mental images can be created only through similar experiences obtained actually or vicariously. Therefore, the teacher who is attempting to teach the meaning of words to the children whose apperceptive background is either totally different or entirely lacking must realize that a common experience must be furnished to provide the associations through which meaning is developed. The number and kind of experiences which can be provided depends upon the teacher and upon the situation, but the important thing is the realization of the necessity for such provision.

THE CLEARING HOUSE

SPELLING ATTITUDE VS. FORMAL DRILL

"John," said the fourth grade teacher one morning, "you are checking out nicely in your arithmetic and reading, but your spelling grades are very low."

John leaned against the desk and spoke in confidence. "It's your fault, Miss Smith, that I get such a low grade in spelling."

"How is that, John?" asked the teacher. "I'm willing to take any blame I deserve, but I fail to see why I am the cause of your poor spelling grades."

"Well, you see," explained John, very seriously, "you give me the list to study in the morning and I study until I know it. Then you wait until afternoon to hear the lesson and by that time I've forgotten many of the words."

We encourage frankness in the relation of teacher and pupil in the Jefferson School in Fresno, California, for this is a real incident, not a joke for the funny paper. Out of John's justifiable charge we have evolved a method of teaching spelling, based upon the assumption that spelling is not a memory exercise but a tool for the proper expression of written thoughts. Eighteen months ago the upper grade teachers of the school would have laughed at the idea of pupils making better progress when given no spelling lessons, than they did by having ten words a day drilled into them. But that is just what our experiment brought out. And thereby hangs the tale.

Some years ago, inspired by an article by H. G. Lull on spelling consciousness, the writer embarked on an experiment designed to develop spelling consciousness in a Berkeley school in a foreign district. We did not establish a spelling consciousness, though we did greatly increase the spelling records of the children. The figures on the experiment were nicely typed and submitted to a professor of elementary education in the University of California. During the next few days a disastrous fire swept the residential district and destroyed the two copies of the study. That was one of the fortunate things about the fire. The manuscript never got into print and the experiment had to be tried all over again.

In the fall of 1928, in a battery of tests for classification purposes, all the grades from the high third through the sixth were given the Morrison-McCall spelling test and the records put away. Without any announcement the teachers went to work to bring up the spelling grades, using the best methods with which they were acquainted at that time. After eight weeks of teaching, a second list from the Morrison-McCall scale was given and the scores compared with those of the previous test. The eight classes had made an average gain of 2.02 words per pupil. As the gain per semester on this scale is approximately 3 words per semester, this figure shows that the classes were being well taught. Under normal conditions the first half of the fall semester should show a greater gain than the second half, due to the fact that many words learned would have not been recalled during the long summer vacation, and the first intensive drill would show a greater result in establishing the recall of words previously learned. This comment is here inserted to bear out the statement that good average teaching of spelling was being done.

At this time a bulletin was issued from the office of the principal and sent to the

eight teachers handling the grades from the high third to high sixth, inclusive. The bulletin follows:

On Spelling

Observations:

1. Spelling is taught so that one may write correctly—there can be no other justification.
2. As it is obviously impossible for every child to be ready to spell automatically every word he uses, could we not state our teaching problem as twofold?
   a. Getting the child to spell automatically the common words he uses.
   b. Making him conscious of the words he does not know how to spell and also encouraging the attitude of being unwilling to spell them incorrectly.

In my supervision I note what to me seem to be errors of procedure:

1. Teachers are giving, in spelling lessons, words that should not be automatic for children of that age.
2. Pupils seem unconcerned if they misspell words not in the regular spelling lesson.
3. Pupils seem unable to copy correctly from the blackboard or from the book.
4. Many pupils are asked to write correctly the words misspelled over and over again to fix the correct spelling. I have watched many of these pupils repeating a misspelling instead of the correct form.

We have now had two tests eight weeks apart and the spelling records of each pupil are filed in the office. For the next eight weeks I should like to have all teachers participate in an experiment to see if we can improve our spelling.

Let us divide the classes into three groups:

Group A. All pupils who have reached the grade standard on this last test.

Group B. Those with a spelling quotient of 100 or better, but who have not reached grade standard. (Note: This difference is due to the fact that our Fresno pupils in a grade average more than a year younger than the Morrison-McCall grade standards.)

Group C. Those below 100 spelling quotient.

Let us try this procedure:

Group A. These pupils are to be excused from all formal spelling lessons. Let them have freedom to use this time for other things. Instead, try to create in their minds the attitude that no paper in any subject should ever be handed in with any word misspelled. When these pupils doubt their ability to spell a word, they should look it up in the alphabetical list in their speller, in the dictionary, or in a textbook. They should be free to ask the teacher, or another pupil, how to spell any doubtful word. Let the teacher be most generous in putting upon the blackboard words commonly required. Set up the ideal of copying words correctly. Failure to keep a high standard in daily written work will move a pupil from Group A to Group B.

Group B. Try to set up the same attitude in the minds of these pupils. In addition, give them the desire to get into Group A by checking out the common words they have been misspelling. To see that they have an exposure to the words of the grade list, give them fifty words on Monday and test the same fifty on Friday. Pupils who fail to live up to requirements of Group B drop to Group C.

Group C. These pupils should have the same ideals as Groups A and B. They should, however, have daily spelling lessons of ten words per day, taught in the best methods of which you are capable. Dictate only words in sentences. Circulate among these pupils while giving out the lesson, ready to spell any word dictated but not in the required ten. This is to keep up the ideal of correctness. Correct the papers and have each pupil list in an alphabetical notebook the correct spellings of any words he has missed. He is to refer to this list whenever he uses any of these words in written work, until such time as the response becomes automatic. Try to set up the ideal that no paper is to be handed in with misspelled words to mar it.

During this experimental period say nothing about grades in spelling. Try to create the ideal that correct spelling is the only aim and that a percentage means nothing. Have each pupil correct his own paper. The taking of no grades helps get over the lesson

that there is no need of boosting a score. Permit the Group A pupils to help any lower group pupil in checking out his individual list or in correcting his language papers.

Specific points.

Give no words for spelling lessons outside the grade list, no matter how important you consider them. Instead, write these correctly on the blackboard and hold pupils responsible for copying them correctly.

Post language papers which contain no spelling errors.

Remember you are trying to establish an attitude of desiring to spell correctly. If a child copies correctly any word over and over again, he soon forms correct bonds for that word.

Try to throw aside any previous convictions on the teaching of spelling and give this experiment a conscientious trial.

The teachers, with many misgivings, excused Group A from any spelling lessons and gave the plan an eight weeks' trial. At the end of that time the pupils were given a third form of the Morrison-McCall scale and the averages were taken. The gain for this eight weeks was 2.9 words per pupil, or nearly a word better than the progress made in the first eight weeks.

This was quite significant. However, it was pointed out that new pupils had come in during the 16 weeks and that also many had moved out of the district. Possibly enough of the poor spellers had moved away to account for the increase. To answer this argument, the scores of only the pupils who had taken all three tests were charted, all others being thrown out. The result was more startling.

There were three scores for 239 pupils. During the first eight weeks the improvement of these 239 averaged 1.52 words per pupil. During the second eight weeks the improvement was 3.26 words per pupil. As one sixth grade teacher remarked, "I never would have believed it if I had not taken part in the experiment myself and seen the changed attitude toward the spelling work."

We followed up the figuring. What about Group A—these children who for eight weeks had not had a formal spelling lesson? Surely this group had not been able to keep up a gain! Our chart showed the records of 76 in this group. The first eight weeks' gain had been 1.56 words; the second eight weeks showed a gain of 1.99 words. Not a startling gain, it is true, but conclusive enough to show that spelling attitude was more potent than a drill of ten words a day.

Group B gained 1.55 words per pupil with daily spelling lessons, but with two lessons a week and the spelling attitude, coupled with a desire to get into Group A, this group made an average gain of 3.62 words per pupil. There were 78 pupils in this division.

Group C contained 85 pupils. These had the same type of lessons through the sixteen weeks but with a similar change of attitude and incentive added during the second period. Their gain per pupil for the first period was 1.45 words per pupil. During the second period they gained 4.07 words per pupil.

Group	*Gain First 8 weeks*	*Gain Second 8 weeks*	*Improvement*
8 Classes	1.52	3.26	1.74
A Group	1.56	1.99	.43
B Group	1.55	3.62	2.07
C Group	1.45	4.07	2.62

These figures convinced the teachers that we had a new and effective method of teaching spelling. From an experiment it has become our established method of teaching spelling for more than a year. We are more than satisfied with it. Two different teachers have made the remark that in their estimation we have solved

the problem of teaching spelling. By this they meant that spelling in the classes is now functional. It extends throughout the day, not merely through the spelling period. The upper grade teachers are no longer annoyed by the misspelling of small words in the written papers. We have established a spelling attitude that substitutes for drill in many cases and makes drill more worth while where it is used. John can no longer maintain that it is the teacher's fault if he misspells the words, because spelling is no longer an unrelated memory subject.

The reader of this article may ask how the divisions have been made after the experiment became a method. We give a form of the Morrison-McCall spelling scale every six weeks and reclassify on the basis of standing and the attitude the pupil has maintained toward his written work. In a test given March 10, 1930, out of 284 pupils tested, 99 were in Group A, maintaining well over the 100 spelling quotient without any formal spelling lessons; 86 were in Group B, maintaining the 100 spelling quotient with the two tests a week; and 99 were in Group C, still having spelling lessons each day. The writer wishes he might state that Group C has been eliminated, but this is a fact article, not fiction. Poor spellers are still with us and migratory pupils bring us many problems. Then, too, in this as in other methods, teachers vary in ability. Some teachers have as few as 10% in Class C, others find as many as 40% need daily drill. However, our results have been significant to us and we pass on the experiment to others in the educational field for such further experimentation as may seem expedient.

HAROLD F. HUGHES,
Director of Visual Education,
Public Schools,
Fresno, Calif.

To the Editor,
EDUCATIONAL METHOD,
New York, N. Y.

Sir:

This letter refers to the article "Direct Moral Training," by Mr. Lyndon Babcock, in the November, 1930, issue of *Educational Method.* Some of our teachers have read it and we wish to differ in respect to some points.

Under (2) the author writes, "Imagine her conducting an inspiring discussion on 'Ambition,' or 'Endeavor,' when she is too tired to stand!" We are not so sure that the best way to teach moral values is to conduct "inspiring discussions" even though the teacher is not "too tired to stand." We agree with the following, which is a quotation from the same issue of *Educational Method,* page 124, under the heading "Modern Methods in Character Education": "The task of providing a program of character education, is, therefore, primarily that of discovering and organizing situations that make desirable experiences possible. What is wanted is not formal instruction about the good life but exercise of judgment of moral values and practice in living the good life, with suitable guidance."

Mr. Babcock writes, "Arithmetic may be presented by anyone knowing the subject and knowing how to present the subject." We do not like to think of teachers of arithmetic and we believe that, in addition to "knowing the subject and how to present the subject," a teacher must also know children. Too many of our teachers in the past have been teachers of arithmetic, geography, etc.

We do not believe that the average teacher has a background of religious prejudice which will interfere with the teaching of moral ideals through all activities of the curriculum.

We do not believe that the fact that the teacher is responsible for order and discipline is a handicap to her being a counselor and friend who may guide her pupils. The tone of the paragraph infers that the teacher is a disciplinarian and governor of the old school rather than the guiding friend that we think of in the teacher of today.

We are partially in agreement with the last paragraph. However, we do not agree totally with the premise on which the paragraph is based, "if education is preparation for life." In our school we are attempting to have a program whereby education *is* life, and if children really live as they should from day to day, meeting situations as they arise in life today, they will be prepared to meet the situations of life after their school years.

Where the matter of sex instruction has been attempted, we have seen so much difficulty when it has been taught by regular teachers and so much misunderstanding when attempted by specialists who are supposed to be authorities that we merely say in this particular that we do not know. We are suspending judgment until we know more about it.

Our impression of this article is that the writer proposes to set up methods of teaching children directly in formal courses the virtues which we hope children may possess. Again we agree with the idea expressed on page 124 of *Educational Method,* November issue, in reference to "Modern Methods of Character Education" in the statement: "It should do much to correct the tendency toward introducing formal courses in the virtues into the public schools." We believe that there is nothing objective in Mr. Babcock's article nor in our reply to his article. We hope that the future may see certain standards set up in relation to character education to which we all may adhere.

Very truly yours,

O. WENDELL HOGUE,

Lyons, N. Y.

December 10, 1930.

AS REPORTED

AN APPEAL FOR THE TEACHING OF THRIFT

The National Association of Mutual Savings Banks, with headquarters in New York, sends out an appeal for greater attention to the teaching of thrift in the public schools. The organization points out that while there is a great deal of interest in the matter among teachers, it is nevertheless irregular and there is no special provision for it in most schools. A habit of planning expenditures to fit income must be formed during the early years and this can come only through training in budgeting saving and spending.

Courses in this field should be very simple in the early years. A good beginning can be made with a school banking and saving system. Some schools give to each pupil an account book. There would seem to be no better time than the present for advertising of thrift in the management of personal affairs. The schools, therefore, would do well to capitalize the present interest in saving.

A FOLK SCHOOL IN THE MOUNTAINS

From Appleton's *School Service* we learn that something approaching the plan of the Danish Folk School has been instituted in the mountain regions of North Carolina. The John C. Campbell Folk School was opened at Brasstown, in 1927. It offers opportunity for young Southern mountaineers to attend school with only brief interruption to their work. The course includes methods of farming, scientific forestry, coöperative marketing, as well as studies in literature, folklore, dramatics, poetry, music, history, science, philosophy, and religion. Students and teachers live together for ten-week periods, during which classes are held in seminar fashion, without examinations or credits.

EDUCATIONAL TOURS TO EUROPE

The International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, in coöperation with the Zentralinstitut für Erziehung und Unterright of Berlin, The Second University of Moscow, and the Ministry of Public Instruction in France, will conduct study tours for American educators in the summer of 1931. The tour to Russia will begin in Moscow on June 15; to Germany, in Bremen on June 22; to England and France, June 1. Each tour lasts about six weeks. All tours will be under the guidance of foreign educational leaders and will offer opportunity to see schools in actual operation. University credit will be granted to those who participate, provided college requirements are met. What these are may be learned from the *Summer Session Bulletin of Information* of Columbia University.

Steamship and other reservations will be attended to by Professor Thomas Alexander, International Institute, Teachers College, Columbia University.

THE BULLETIN OF THE WASHINGTON PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION

The Elementary Principals' Association of the white schools of Washington, D. C., has published a bulletin devoted principally to accounts of units of work and activities in character education. A fairly full account of the study of the American Indian in the second grade in the Petworth School is contributed by Miss Susan R. Cannon. This shows how the activity was launched, what concrete problems were

met and solved, and what subjects of study were involved. The text of a pageant presented by the pupils is given in full. The writer states that distinct growth was noted in rhythmic expression, æsthetic appreciation, and power to gain satisfaction through art activities.

ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON PARENT EDUCATION

Saturday, March 28, is the day set for the annual conference sponsored by the Chicago Association for Child Study and Parent Education. The Chicago public already is aware of the vital importance of these conferences, which have been held the past six years. The Chicago Association has been responsible for more active discussion in the realm of parent education than any other organization in this locality.

This year's program promises to be of value to parents and all those interested in the family relationship. Four of the country's leading authorities on the problems of marriage and parenthood will appear on the main program. In addition, informal discussions will be directed by leaders from Chicago and its vicinity at several noon round-tables. Dr. Lawson G. Lowrey and Dr. Bernard Glueck will appear in the morning and Dr. Phyllis Blanchard and Floyd Dell in the afternoon, all of whom will discuss the sources, problems, and adjustments in marital relationships. A cordial invitation is extended to all members to attend. The tentative program is as follows:

PARENT RELATIONSHIP AND THE CHILD

Morning Session, 10 A. M.

Chairman—Dr. Karl Menninger.

Some Emotional Difficulties in Marital Adjustment Related to Early Parental Patterns,
LAWSON G. LOWREY, M.D., Director, Institute for Child Guidance, New York City.

Some of the Sources of Marital Discontent,
BERNARD GLUECK, M.D., Psychiatrist, New York City.

Round Table Discussions—12.15 and 2.15

DR. RACHELLE YARROS, DR. ARTHUR BYRON, DR. THOMAS D. ELIOT, DR. ARTHUR J. TODD

Afternoon Session, 2.15 P. M.

Chairman—Dr. Michael Davis.

Personality Problems in Marriage and Parenthood,
PHYLLIS BLANCHARD, Ph.D., Psychologist, Philadelphia Child Guidance Clinic.

The Family and the Machine Age,
FLOYD DELL, Author.

SECOND ANNUAL CONFERENCE FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

The second annual conference for school superintendents, school board members, secretaries, and other administrative officers will be held at George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee, March 30 to April 3, 1931.

There were in attendance at the first annual conference, held last year, over eight hundred school officials. The interest shown and the benefits derived were such that it has been decided to hold these conferences annually.

The program of the second annual conference will include discussions and lectures by prominent school administrators. Among those from George Peabody College for Teachers will be: Dr. Bruce R. Payne, president; Dr. Shelton Phelps, director of instruction; Dr. Norman Frost, professor of rural education; Dr. Charles W. Knudsen, professor of secondary education; Dr. Dennis H. Cooke, associate professor of education; Dr. Ray L. Hamon, associate professor of education; Dr. Maycie Southall, associate professor of elementary education; Dr. A. L. Crabb, professor of education, and Dr. Walter D. Cocking, professor of school administra-

tion. Other members of the conference faculty will be: Dr. W. S. Monroe, professor of education, University of Illinois; Hon. C. M. Hirst, State Superintendent of Arkansas; Mr. W. C. McCornack, consulting architect of Julius Rosenwald Foundation; Mr. M. G. Clark, Superintendent of Schools, Sioux City, Iowa; Mr. R. V. Long, State Department of Education, Richmond, Virginia; Dr. Dale S. Young, State Department of Education, Montgomery, Alabama; Dr. W. S. Taylor, Dean of the College of Education, University of Kentucky; Dr. H. H. Davis, professor of administration, Ohio State University; Dr. H. M. Ivy, Superintendent of Schools, Meridian, Mississippi.

The discussions of the conference will center around five specific problems which constitute some of the most important ones facing administrators today: Problems of Personnel and Relationships; Problems of School Housing; Problems of School Finance; Problems of Equipment and Supplies; and Problems of Supervision.

A special feature of the conference will be an exhibit of school equipment and supplies by leading manufacturers. It is planned to have certain classrooms equipped with the most up-to-date equipment and supplies for the inspection of all those in attendance.

The program allows for round-table and group discussions. Persons who have special problems will be given the opportunity of presenting these at the daily group conferences.

The definite purpose of the conference is to assist school administrators in the solution of their practical problems. Those attending the conference will not only profit from the discussions led by instructors but will also be benefited by the wide exchange of views with men from many states.

There will be no tuition or registration fees.

FORMAL ORGANIZATION OF THE NEW YORK STATE ASSOCIATION OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

No movement in elementary education in New York State of greater possible significance to those in the field of elementary education has been consummated than the organization into a state association of the elementary principals of New York, effected at the first official meeting held at Syracuse on December 29 and 30, 1930. The committee on organization was gratified by the fact that the number of charter members was more than twice as large as had been anticipated.

Dr. James F. Hosic, Professor of Education and Director of Extramural Courses in Teachers College, Columbia University, gave the opening address on "Progressive Tendencies in Elementary Education." He said, in part, that what is needed now is less propaganda and more discrimination. Certainly newness is no assurance of progress. Principals should list proposals for change in school practice by fundamental criteria, such as: (1) Does the idea promise a better realization of democratic ideals? (2) Does it square with the psychology of growth through dynamic experience? (3) Should schools undertake it or can it be done better by other institutions? (4) Has its worth yet been established by actual use in normal situations?

This address was followed by several round-table discussions, all of which were exceptional for the interest and enthusiasm on the part of those attending. The main topics discussed were:

Adapting Instruction to Individual Needs.—Leader, Owen Sage.

Fitting the Classroom for a Progressive Educational Program.—Leader, Principal Ruth V. Riley, of Glens Falls.

Problems of Child Development.—Leader, Miss May E. Peabody, New York State Education Department.

Visual Instruction.—Leader, Dr. Ralph Walter, of New Rochelle.

Enlisting the Community's Coöperation.—Leader, Ray T. Grabe, of Schenectady.

Playgrounds.—Leader, Principal Frederick Schultz, of Buffalo.

Unit Teaching.—Leader, Mrs. Lillian Merritt, of Rome.

On Monday evening the first annual banquet was held, with Mr. Frederick B. Graham of New York City as toastmaster. More than 250 were present. A brief address was given by Dr. J. Cayce Morrison, Assistant Commissioner for Elementary Education, in which he ably presented the need of an association of elementary principals. Dr. J. R. McGaughy, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, and Dr. Warren Cox, of the Educational Research Division of the New York State Education Department, debated the *pros* and *cons* of "Homogeneous Grouping." This debate evoked more discussion than any other section of the program.

Tuesday morning, in general session, Dr. Frank Hubbard of the Department of Research, National Education Association, gave an address on "Whither the Elementary Principalship." This address was followed by section meetings, in which were discussed various phases of the problems that arise in attempts to provide for individual differences.

The last session was held after the noon luncheon. Dr. C. A. Pugsley, instructor in Elementary School Administration at Buffalo State Teachers College, addressed the meeting on the subject, "The Principal's Part in Promoting a Progressive Educational Program."

At this meeting the regular business of organization was perfected by the adoption of a constitution and the election of the following officers for the ensuing year: President, Hoyt D. Smith, New Rochelle; Vice-President, George D. Taylor, Rochester; Secretary, Berten B. Bean, Buffalo; Treasurer, Rollin W. Thompson, Utica.

Annual meetings will be held each year in the week following Christmas. Section meetings will be held in conjunction with the zone meetings of the New York State Teachers Association.

Without question the professional worth of the meeting and the response of the principals from every section of the State is sufficient proof of the good work of those to whom the principals owe the initial success of the organization. With this start, next year should see a much larger attendance and, if possible, a wider interest.

BERTEN B. BEAN,
Secretary

THE READER'S GUIDE

ADVICE TO STUDENTS

Principles of learning applied to the practical problems of college work are briefly set forth in a small handbook by a specialist in nursing education.[1] The writer has found, apparently, that persons specializing in this field frequently waste their time by ineffective methods just as they do in other fields. She makes more direct use of modern psychology than most of those who have preceded her have done, and she manages to say a great deal in small space. Three types of study outcomes are mentioned, but no differentiation of techniques is explicitly presented for them. College students will find this small book suggestive.

HISTORY OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

The multiplying of courses in schools of education and in normal schools intended to train students for particular "jobs" has created a demand for courses in such general fields as the history of education and educational psychology planned with reference to the needs of students with specific interests. Professor Reisner's new book[2] is the outcome of this movement.

The works with which it will come in competition are Parker's *Textbook in the History of Modern Elementary Education* and Cubberley's *Public Education in the United States.* Because of its wider scope, the latter could afford less space than such a book as Reisner's to the elementary school as such. The specific facts about elementary schools are greater in number than in the newer work. The difference is to be found in the scale of treatment. Reisner has more room for exposition of underlying philosophy and for critical evaluation. Much of Parker's space, as in all of his books, is devoted to guideposts for the reader. He summarizes the main points of each chapter at the beginning. He makes lavish use of headings and sub-headings. He quotes many passages in full, being one of the first of the current school of educational writers devoted to scissors and paste. He also lists numerous references—as Cubberley does too. It appears obvious that Parker had a relatively immature and unthinking student in mind and resolved to make assurance doubly sure that he should be able to recall everything in the book.

Professor Reisner's text reads like a series of well-condensed and carefully prepared lectures. He assumes that his hearers already know something about most of the topics discussed. He aims to clear up misconceptions and assist the reader to take a defensible position with regard to debatable issues. He is judicial, moderate, shrewd in applying judgment, and thoroughly familiar with the sources. The careful reader can hardly fail to attain a good perspective view of present-day elementary education.

What he will fail to get is an intimate impression of the schools of the country as they actually are today and of the changes that are taking place in them. To take a single example, there is no reference in the index to any of the following: William Wirt, Platoon School, Work-Study-Play School. It is difficult to avoid the conclusion that the writer underestimates the amount of change that has actually taken place in public organization and procedure

[1] *Efficient Study Habits.* By Maude Blanche Muse. W. B. Saunders Co., 1929.
[2] *The Evolution of the Common School.* By Edward H. Reisner. Macmillan Company, 1930.

since 1900. His position is the safe one to take, of course, since time alone can tell which of the current innovations will have any lasting influence. Nevertheless the effect is to leave the reader with the feeling that by and large the schools are today essentially what Pestalozzianism made them. This is at least doubtful emphasis.

There are numerous references throughout the book to the author's earlier *Nationalism in Education* and the student will do well to consult that work. At a time when the country sorely needs a constructive social program, it is a distinct service to call to general attention the possibilities of common schools as social agencies. What has been done for the sake of a place in the sun might conceivably be done for a quite different object. The extremely readable character of this book greatly enhances its value and will give it an appeal to an audience beyond the walls of college classrooms.

SCHOOL DRAMATICS

The possibilities of play production in secondary schools are well brought out in two recent handbooks.[3] Miss Ward supervises dramatics in Evanston, Illinois; Mr. Tower was formerly director of public speaking and dramatic art in the Central High School of Binghamton, New York. Miss Ward's book is much the larger and hence she has been able to present many more concrete illustrations, both of "book" and picture. The possibilities of playmaking and production by pupils, even in the eighth grade, will surprise those who have not observed the results of competent direction of school dramatics. Together with Miss Brown's *Creative Drama in the Lower School*, by the same publishers, this volume rounds out a complete treatment of dramatics for public schools.

Mr. Tower's purpose and point of view are distinctly different. His book is more encyclopedic. It was evidently intended as a sort of expanded outline with references. Hence there are few topics upon which the treatment is at all full or adequate. The best single feature is the wealth of photographic illustrations of stage scenes. The bibliographies are extensive and contain many references fitted to college rather than high school students. As a supplementary source of information and handbook of reference the work may well find a place in high school libraries.

MORE STATISTICS AND MEASUREMENT

We have our moments of depression when we feel that every person of importance in Education who is not writing textbooks in arithmetic is writing either a book in educational statistics or one dealing with tests and measurements. Nevertheless we are constrained to praise highly one of the most recent additions to the field of educational statistics—*Statistics for Teachers*, by Tiegs and Crawford.[4]

The title is an excellent one in that it implies that the treatment of the various statistical concepts and techniques is simple and easily understandable, but it is an unfortunate title if it prevents administrators and supervisors from using this excellent book as a manual and guide in their minor researches and readings. It is only the educator engaged in highly technical work in experimentation or research who will need a treatment of statistical theory and technique that is more detailed or advanced than this presented by Tiegs and Crawford.

The book has been well adapted for use

[3] *Creative Dramatics for Upper Grades and Junior High School.* By Winifred Ward. D. Appleton and Company, 1930.
Educational Dramatics. By Donald M. Tower. Row, Peterson and Co., 1930.
[4] *Statistics for Teachers.* By Ernest W. Tiegs and Claude C. Crawford. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930.

as a text in elementary statistics classes in teacher-training institutions. At the end of each chapter is a true-false test and a series of questions and exercises based upon the chapter. The book is as little technical as it could have been made, and the applications and illustrations are interesting and practical. Personally, we should have liked it better had the authors chosen to use the Probable Error rather than Standard Error in their discussion and teaching of the reliability of statistical measurements. It is our impression that ordinary professional literature most often reports reliability in terms of Probable Error and that the use of the Standard Error encourages confusion with the Standard Deviation as a measure of the variability of a distribution of scores.

A new book in the field of measurement deserving of honorable mention is Odell's *Educational Measurement in High School.*[5] This book provides for those in secondary education highly detailed information concerning the many tests now available in each of many high school subjects. This feature of the book corresponds very closely to the revised *How to Measure*, by Wilson and Hoke, in the elementary school field. Though the major part of the book is devoted to this discussion of specific tests, at the beginning and end of the book are some general and some rather technical discussions of the measurement movement in education. In chapters dealing with such controversial matters as general intelligence, school marks, and classification and promotion the author disagrees radically, in some instances, with the positions taken by this reviewer, but perhaps that is not at all to the author's discredit.

We understand perfectly that it takes time for publishers to convert a finished manuscript into a book ready for distribution, so it would be unfair to blame the author because he is not familiar with T. L. Kelley's *The Interpretation of Educational Measurements*[6] or with the very recent researches conducted in the field of homogeneous grouping. We should take it rather as an excellent indication of growth in progressive scientific education that parts of an excellent, scholarly manuscript may be out of date before they can reach the reader in book form.

J. R. McGaughy,
Teachers College,
Columbia University.

A NEW VIEW OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Just as the principal of a school has two vitally related types of duties and responsibilities, so has the classroom teacher the functions of inspiring and directing educative activities and also of maintaining conditions favorable to those activities. Superintendent Pulliam writes very helpfully of the latter.[7]

He conceives this second function as having to do with economical routine, social control, attendance, health, records, relations with parents, coöperating with other teachers, and even the professional growth of the teacher herself. On these and similar topics he has much that is useful to say. He recognizes that a great deal of what is properly called management is potentially educative to the pupils, though he does not connect this function as closely with the social purposes of the school as one could wish. The principle that "extra-instructional activities of the teacher" should be guided by the same philosophy that underlies her teaching as such is not made clear. This is a decided omission. It

[5] *Educational Measurement in High School.* By C. W. Odell. Century Company, 1930.
[6] World Book Company, 1927.
[7] *Extra-Instructional Activities of the Teacher.* By Roscoe Pulliam. Doubleday, Doran, 1930.

appears to the reviewer that the time is ripe for insistence upon this principle in season and out of season.

This is not to say that management is regarded by this author as a thing apart, a necessary evil, to be done in order merely that the pupils may get lessons and recite them. The spirit of the book as a whole is modern. It is a worthy addition to the series of advanced texts for students of secondary education of which Professor Monroe is editor. The suggestions made are, for the most part, applicable to elementary schools as well.

ON EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Current practices in extra-curricular activities is well summarized in a volume published by the Colorado State Teachers College.[8] The material was gathered by students of the college, under the direction of Professor Earl U. Rugg, and is presented in a series of masters' theses, introduced by a digest of philosophy and procedure.

The range of topics is wide, embracing teacher preparation, student participation, social training, intra- and out-of-school activities, and evaluation. Boy Scout organizations, and Hi-Y Clubs, for example, come in for consideration, as well as the deanship of girls and the leisure-time pursuits of adults. The whole constitutes a very valuable source book in this field.

Professor Terry is interested in the supervision of extra-curricular activities.[9] This is an exhaustive presentation, also wide-ranging, well documented. The reference lists alone make the volume exceedingly valuable for reference and supplementary reading. An idea of the scope of the treatment may be gained from the main headings. These are: Historical and Theoretical Backgrounds, Student Participation in the Government of the School, Important Types of Student Organizations, Problems of Organization and Supervision. The field is that of secondary education—junior and senior high schools.

From this it will easily be seen that, like so many other books on supervision, a large part of the content consists of material for supervisors rather than material on the principle and technique of supervision itself. To many students this will appear to be a distinct advantage. They will be quite as solicitous about what to do as how to do it.

The intention is to present in one view the philosophy and best practice of progressive schools. Those working in limited situations will of course be obliged to make their own applications. Principals of elementary schools, as well as those of secondary schools, will find the book highly suggestive. Many of the pupil activities described are now to be found in some elementary schools and they should be widely introduced.

SIGNIFICANT ARTICLES

EDUCATIONAL BOOKS FOR 1930

As has been customary in recent years, Mr. Joseph L. Wheeler, the Librarian of the Enoch Pratt Library in Baltimore, Maryland, contributes to *School and Society* for January 24 a selected list of "Educational Books of 1930." This contains 579 titles as compared with 532 in 1929 and 443 in 1928. The author points out that the new "Education Index," published in New York, makes the material in these fields and also current magazine material more easily available to teachers and students than has been true in the past.

[8] *Summary of Investigations Relating to Extra-Curricular Activities.* By Earl U. Rugg and others. Colorado State Teachers College, 1930.

[9] *Supervising Extra-Curricular Activities in the American Secondary School.* By Paul W. Terry. McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1930.

CREATIVE EXPRESSION THROUGH DRAMATICS

The January number of *Progressive Education* is devoted to a series of illustrated articles on dramatics in the schools. Among the institutions represented are the Walden School, the Lincoln School of Teachers College, the Ballard Memorial School in Louisville, Kentucky, the Sunset Hill School in Kansas City, Missouri, the Ethical Culture School, the Scarborough School, a public school in Raleigh, North Carolina, the Francis W. Parker School, the Winnetka public schools, Park School in Baltimore, and Rosemary Hall in Greenwich, Connecticut. This is one of the most attractive numbers of its magazine that the Progressive Education Association has so far issued.

EDUCATION OF PARENTS

Childhood Education for January contains a series of articles on the education of parents. The list of contributors includes Director Stoddard, of the Child Welfare Research Station at the University of Iowa; Miss May Hill, of Western Reserve University; Director Bridgman, of the Parents' Council in Philadelphia; Director Anderson, of the Institute of Child Welfare, University of Minnesota; Mrs. Charters, of Ohio State University and State Department of Education at Columbus, and others. A valuable feature of this symposium is a selected bibliography on child development and parent education prepared by the editors.

THE RED CROSS AND THE SCHOOLS

Recent agitation has called general attention to the work of the American Red Cross. Students of education may keep in touch with the activities of the organization through *The Red Cross Courier*, which is issued twice a month, and the bulletins of the Junior Red Cross. The number of the *Courier* for January 15 contains an index of Volume IX. A glance at this reveals a very wide range of interesting topics which may be brought into the work of both the elementary and the secondary schools. As a sample of the readable qualities of the magazines of the American Red Cross, attention may be called to an article in this number of the *Courier* by Miss Ruth Evelyn Henderson, on "There's Room for the Whole Family."

THE NATIONAL ENGLISH COUNCIL AFTER TWENTY YEARS

The English Journal for January, 1931, contains a full account of the twentieth annual conference of the National Council of Teachers of English. This reflects a tremendous growth in importance and range of interests. About one thousand persons were present, among whom were eleven past presidents. The services of the latter were invoked in connection with a proposal brought before the Board of Directors for the making of a new contract between the publishers of the *English Journal* and the Council. At this convention a new commission on curriculum in English was announced, which has for its purpose "to lead the way to a unified program of English training integrated from top to bottom and culminating in that mastery of English elements needed for a complete, happy, and perfected living."

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year: President, R. L. Lyman, University of Chicago; first vice-president, George W. Norvell, New York State Education Department; second vice-president, Mabel C. Hermans, Bureau of Curriculum Research, Los Angeles; secretary-treasurer, W. Wilbur Hatfield, Chicago Normal College; auditor, Merrill Bishop, Supervisor of English in Junior High Schools, San Antonio; member of the Executive Committee for two years, Ruth Mary Weeks, Paseo High School, Kansas City.

THE ELEMENTARY CLASSROOM

How large should the rooms for classes in elementary schools be? Superintendent McGinnis, of Perth Amboy, New Jersey, attempts to answer this question in *School Executives Magazine* for January. He quotes numerous investigations and authorities to show that there is evidence in favor of large classes, and presents figures to show the difference in cost to a school system when building for thirty-five pupils to the room as contrasted with the policy of building for forty or more pupils to the room. The article makes no attempt to deal with questions as to what sort of a room is needed, but confines itself merely to the question of size.

THE WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE ON HEALTH

The editors provide for the readers of the *Pennsylvania School Journal* an excellent summary of the recent White House Conference on Health and Child Welfare. An outline of sections with topics and speakers is given, together with summaries of addresses by President Hoover, Secretary Wilbur, and Professor Kelly, of the University of Chicago. In the view of the latter, the conclusions of the seven committees and ninety sub-committees are found to relate to some twelve main ideas, including the relation of the child to human progress, to the machine age, to democracy, home, school, church, play, character, and vocation. The 19-point program presented by Secretary Wilbur at the closing session of the Conference is quoted in full.

A SCIENCE HANDBOOK

The Science Department of the University of California in Berkeley presents in the *University High School Journal* for December, 1930, a detailed handbook to be used by students in their supervised teaching and field work in the University High School in Oakland. A preference is expressed for the large unit plan of work, and its relation to the making of daily plans is explained. Other items include the making of objective tests and a check list of points to observe in science teaching. The document as a whole is very comprehensive and might well be reprinted as a pamphlet for general distribution. It was edited by Dr. Cahoon.

THE NEW BOOKS

History of Secondary Education. By I. L. Kandel. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930. Pp. 577. $3.50.

Essays in Comparative Education. By I. L. Kandel. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. Pp. 235. $2.50.

Direction and Coördination of Supervision. By William G. Brink. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1930. Pp. 117.

Problems in Educational Psychology. By Walter J. Gifford and Clyde P. Shorts. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran and Co., 1931. Pp. 728. $3.00.

The Behavior of Young Children. By Ethel B. Waring and Marguerite Wilker. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1929. Pp. 121. *The Behavior of Young Children,* II, pp. 151. Series on Childhood Education. Each, $1.00.

How to Teach Spelling. By Frederick S. Breed. Dansville, N. Y.: F. A. Owen Publishing Co., 1930. Pp. 177.

The Happy Childhood Readers. Primer: *Betty and Jack,* by Albert C. Lisson, Evelyn V. Thonet, and Emma Grant Meader; pp. 151; illus. First Reader: *Helen and Bob,* by Albert C. Lisson, Evelyn V. Thonet, and Emma Grant Meader; pp. 192; illus. Second Reader: *Alice and Billy,* by Albert C. Lisson and Emma Grant Meader; pp. 270; illus. Third Reader: *The Happy Road,* by

Albert C. Lisson and Emma Grant Meader; pp. 304; illus. Dansville, N. Y.: F. A. Owen Publishing Co., 1930.

The Nature Almanac—A Handbook of Nature Education. Washington, D. C.: The American Nature Association, 1930. Pp. 399.

The Drum Book. By Satis N. Coleman. New York: John Day Co., 1931. Pp. 189. Illus.

Read It Yourself Stories. By Jessie A. Harris and Lillian M. Edmonds. Chicago: Beckley-Cardy Co., 1930. Pp. 138. Illus. $.70.

A Dog of Flanders. By Louise de la Ramée. Chicago: Beckley-Cardy Co., 1930. Pp. 128. Illus. $.60.

Goodly Company. By Jessie E. Logan. Chicago: Beckley-Cardy Co., 1930. Pp. 221. Illus. $1.00.

Laboratory Instruction in the Field of Inorganic Chemistry. By Victor H. Noll. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1930. Pp. 164. $2.00.

Our Educational Task. By William H. Kilpatrick. Chapel Hill, N. C.: University of North Carolina Press, 1930. Pp. 123. $1.50.

Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, 1930: No. 426, *Predicting First-Grade Reading Achievement,* by Erby C. Deputy; pp. 61; $1.50. No. 427, *Moral Education Among the North American Indians,* by Claude A. Nichols; pp. 104; $1.50. No. 443, *A Comparative Study of Entrance to Teacher-Training Institutions,* by Mellicent McNeil; pp. 104; $1.50. No. 449, *The Development of Guiding Principles for the Administration of Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools,* by Samuel A. Rudledge; pp. 107; $1.50. No. 451, *An Analytical Contrast of Oral with Written English,* by Paul P. Bushnell; pp. 87; $1.50.

IN PAPER COVERS

Washburne Individual Arithmetic. By Carleton Washburne et al. Books I-XII; Pad for Book VIII; Test Book for Books I-V; Correction Book for Books I-V; Test Book for Books VI-XII; Correction Book for Books VI-XII; Key for Test Book for Books I-XII; Teachers Manual. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1930.

Practice Exercises in Reading. By Arthur I. Gates and Celeste C. Peardon. Book III, Types A, B, C, and D. Manual of Directions. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930.

Non-Language Primary Mental Test for Kindergarten and Grades I and II. By Rudolf Pintner. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930.

Standard Test Lessons in Fractions. By Amy J. DeMay and William A. McCall. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930.

Representative Twentieth-Century Americans. By M. A. DeWolfe Howe. Chicago: American Library Association, 1930. Reading with a Purpose, No. 63. Pp. 38.

Little Songs for Little Voices. By Geraldine M. Ryan. Chicago: Beckley-Cardy Co., 1930. Pp. 32. $.75.

Learning to Spell. By Julia N. McCorkle. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1930. Pp. 89.

The Book Shop (A Play). By Rosa L. Sasloe. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1930. Pp. 28. Illus.

Yearbook, 1930-1931. New York: Child Study Association of America, 221 West 57th St. Pp. 40. *Child Study Groups at Headquarters, 1930-1931.* Pp. 24.

What We Know About Heredity and Environment. By Benjamin C. Gruenberg. Brush Foundation Publications, No. 7. New York: Viking Press, 1930. Pp. 11.

EVALUATION OF SUPERVISION

BY A COMMITTEE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERVISORS AND DIRECTORS OF INSTRUCTION

Professor Clifford Woody, *Chairman* **Superintendent Worth McClure, *Vice-Chairman***

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